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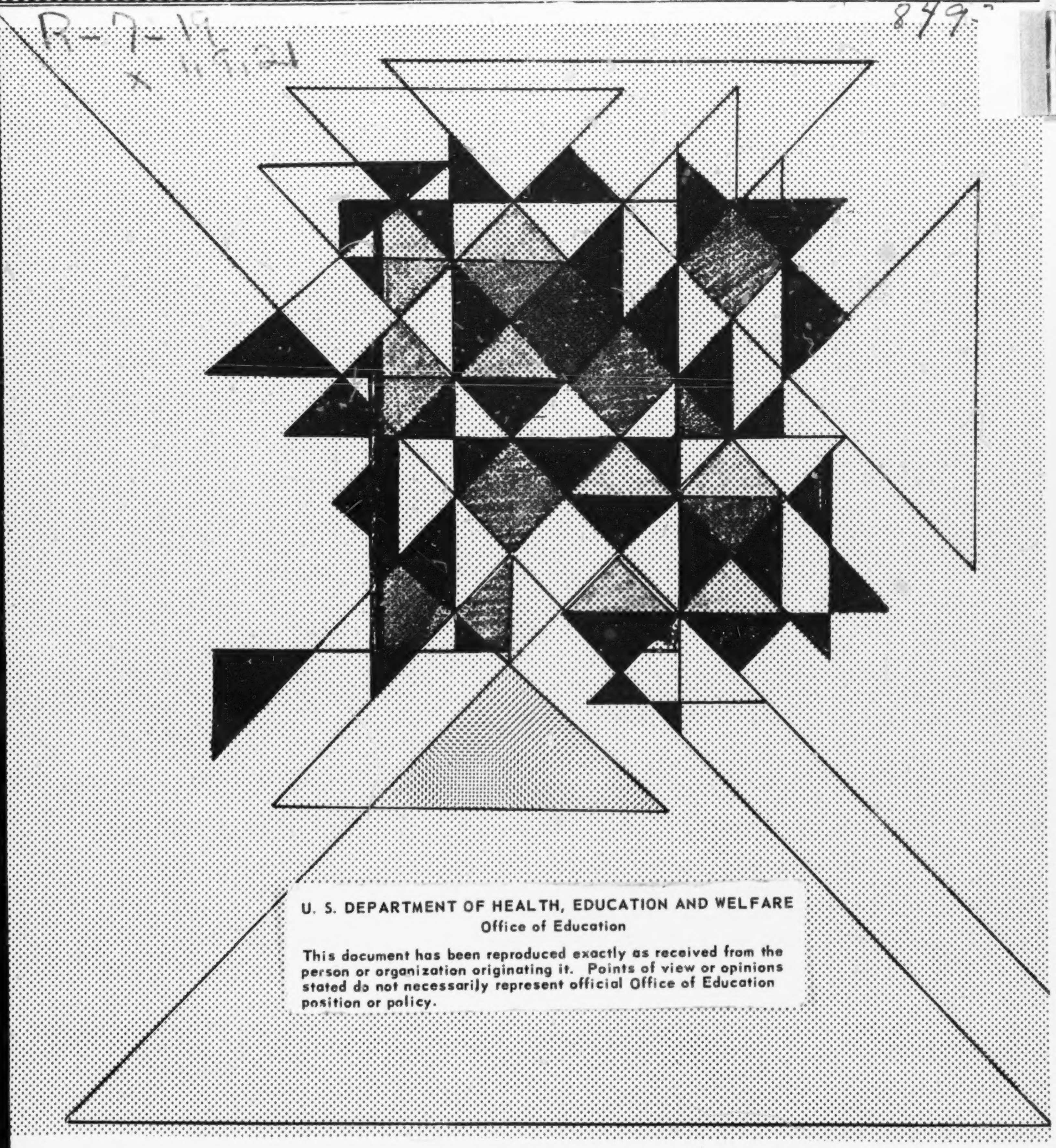

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RESEARCH *for* *Small Colleges*

ED000900

RESEARCH FOR SMALL COLLEGES

Papers Presented at a Conference

on

August 20-21, 1962

Sponsored by

Southern Regional Education Board

Auburn University
School of Education

FOREWORD

The rapidly increasing demand for higher education in America is one of the most dramatic chapters in the history of education. How these demands are to be met remains to be seen, although much attention is being given to the problem.

This document is the report of a conference devoted to the consideration of research as one of the means which should be employed in adequately meeting current needs for higher education. Emphasis is placed on research in the small college and seven examples of such research make up the content of the report. Each example of research concerns itself with a subject of significance to colleges as they attempt to meet the demands placed upon them. A casual reading of this document should be sufficient to show the values of such research to institutions of higher learning.

The antecedents of this conference may be of significance when viewed in the context of current pressures on colleges and universities. A group of colleges within convenient commuting distance of the Auburn University campus have banded together in a cooperative program to improve their programs and services. Representatives of these institutions, accepting an offer by Auburn University to assist in such a program, assembled on the campus more than a year ago to consider the proposed partnership.

The conference reported in these pages is one outgrowth of the initial meeting of this group. Enthusiasm engendered by the content of the conference among those present and their assertions of its practical values have gone far to validate the partnership concept as initially postulated. In our opinion, readers of this report will sense something of this enthusiasm.

Substantial assistance from the Southern Regional Education Board is gratefully acknowledged. Financial assistance to underwrite costs of the conference and publication of this document, professional help in planning the program, contributions to the conference by a staff member and a former staff member of the Southern Regional Education Board are also deeply appreciated.

Truman M. Pierce

Truman M. Pierce, Dean
School of Education

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INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCH IN SMALL COLLEGES

James L. Miller, Jr.*

Like everything else about the small college, institutional research there is different from institutional research in larger institutions. In most respects the differences are a matter of degree rather than kind. They grow out of the simple fact that the small college _is_ small. To appreciate the difference which smallness makes in institutional research, it is necessary first to look at the differences which the smallness makes for the institution as a whole.

There are a number of stereotypes and cliches about small colleges which inhibit clear thinking about them. One is the stereotype of the small college as a poor college. This one is prevalent among some faculty and administrators in large universities who cannot conceive of an institution as genuinely good unless it is involved in research on a large scale, but I think it is even more prevalent in medium-sized colleges where faculty and staff note that, like most American colleges, theirs has grown larger and also has grown better and they assume a correlation between these two phenomena. The further conclusion that small college equals poor college is a beautiful example of bad logic. The stereotype of the small college as an inferior institution is patently false.

Another stereotype which is equally misleading is that a small college is necessarily a good college. This generalization has given birth to innumerable cliches that link small colleges with small classes, with personalized instruction, and with the intimate association of the budding minds of students and the flowering minds of faculty. Yet it is just as possible that the association is between student minds that are dwarfed and faculty minds that have gone to seed, or, as Charles Johnson suggested, that the small class may only provide an intimate atmosphere in which to perpetuate mediocrity.

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*Mr. Miller is Associate Director for Research, Southern Regional Education Board.

I suggest that we throw out the stereotypes and consider the facts. There are approximately 1,250 colleges in the United States which have an enrollment of less than 1,000 students. This is over 60 per cent of the total number of colleges and universities in the country. Numbered among these small colleges are some of the best and some of the worst colleges in this nation, and also some of the most interesting -- the experimental institutions like Sarah Lawrence and Bennington that through the years have captured the imagination of the educational world. Small colleges exhibit the same diversity that characterizes American higher education as a whole. Some of them are publicly controlled -- either by a state government or by a local government -- and some of them are privately controlled -- either by a religious denomination or by an independent non-sectarian board; some are financially well endowed and some are so poverty-stricken that they are unable to provide even a moderately acceptable educational program; some have illustrious faculties and cater to a select group of students drawn from all across the nation, and others are strictly local in their orientation and provide a program that relates to and serves the community in which they are located. Numbered among the small colleges are most of the country's junior-community colleges -- a segment of American higher education which at the present time is experiencing a remarkable and dynamic growth.

If small colleges in America are so diverse, why do we speak of them as though they form a single group? Simply because, in spite of the genuine diversity among them, there are certain characteristics which most small colleges share that, on the one hand, open to them certain possibilities for development and, on the other hand, preclude certain other possibilities. These common characteristics of small colleges are sufficiently important to make a discussion of them meaningful.

Size of enrollment is the obvious way in which all small colleges differ from other institutions. Less obvious are the innumerable other differences which stem directly or indirectly from a limited enrollment. It limits the number of classes that can be offered, and indirectly it limits the number of faculty members who are employed, the specializations of these faculty members, the number of administrative staff members and their specializations, the number of buildings on the campus, the financial resources of the college, and, if the college has them at all, the size of the research program and of the community service activities. Not all of these limitations are a necessary outgrowth of a small enrollment, but in fact they generally are correlated with it.

The most significant potential advantage which a small college has is its ability, because of its smallness, to decide upon a single set of institutional objectives and build a total collegiate environment which promotes these objectives through every facet of a student's life. It is abundantly clear that the student learning which takes place on a college campus is the result of much more than simply the classroom experiences. The out-of-class experiences are equally important both for what they contribute in and of themselves and also for the effect which they have on the students' receptivity to and use of his classroom experiences. Jacob and others have shown that a few colleges in this country have been perculiarly successful in affecting the values and attitudes and ambitions of the students who attend them. In general, these have been small colleges in which the total college community understood and worked for a common set of objectives.

In larger institutions it is not possible to do this for the total student body, although recent research has shown that in larger institutions student sub-cultures exist which in some cases have much the same effect upon the students who are caught up in them. The difference is that in the small institutions it is possible for the institution itself to deliberately choose the environment it will create and set about doing this for the total student body. Of course, the opportunity to do this and the realization of that opportunity are two different things, and very few colleges have good evidence to show that they have done it. This is one of the tragedies in American higher education -- that it has failed to have the impact upon students that it might.

One side of the coin, then, is the opportunity which smallness provides, the other side of the coin is the inevitable limitations which smallness imposes. A small college has the opportunity to create a controlled environment which can deeply affect the students -- and the faculty -- who are a part of that environment, but by the same token a small college does not have the resources to create an environment in which there is a wide variety of courses and activities from which the student may choose -- at least not in the sense that these are available to students in a university.

The reasons for this are several and each of these reasons is important. The number of students in a small college is limited and these students can only be divided between a limited number of separate classes before individual class enrollment become too small for effective education. One of the most objectionable features about most classes is their educational inefficiency. Furthermore, the number of faculty members in most small colleges is limited and if a large number of courses are offered it usually is accomplished by overloading this limited faculty. The effect of this overloading is to drive away the good faculty members who are sincerely interested in doing a good job of teaching. The financial resources of most small colleges also are limited and it is easy for a small college to exhaust most of these resources simply in paying the cost of teaching a large and miscellaneous array of courses.

In most small colleges the key to quality, the key to financial solvency, the key to faculty improvement, and the key to educational success in terms of the impact which the institution makes upon the students is to be found in the structure of the curriculum and the relationship of the curriculum to the institution's over-all educational objectives. Although there are gradations in between, the curriculum of the small college tends to approximate one of two types. The first is a large and miscellaneous assortment of courses that have been added to the curriculum for a wide variety of generally unrelated and ill-defined reasons. This type of curriculum is like spilt milk -- it spreads in all directions until it is too thin to run any more. Like spilt milk, it is tragically wasteful and leads more to slipping and sliding than to sustenance. The second type of small college curriculum has a severely limited but well planned set of course offerings. These courses have been chosen because of their direct relationship to the institution's principal objective or objectives. These courses can be well taught because the faculty teach a limited number of courses and therefore have time to prepare thoroughly for each one. At least in theory the faculty members can be better qualified because they better understand the central purposes of the institution. Faculty members also can be better paid in such an institution because the institution's faculty salary money has been used to secure a smaller number of better paid teachers. By carefully planning and delimiting its course offerings, the institution has conserved its resources in terms of money, faculty energy, and student time so that it is able constantly to improve those courses it offers and in addition make a substantial investment in those out-of-class activities which also contribute to the educational objectives of the college.

A deliberately restricted curriculum makes one further contribution to the effectiveness of a small college. It causes the faculty and the administration to pay close attention to course selection and course content and thereby forces the institution to pay close attention to the careful definition of its own objectives. This is true because arguments over course selection and course content inevitably resolve themselves into arguments over the educational objectives which these courses are designed to promote. And, intangible as it may be, nothing contributes to the effectiveness of a college quite so much as a clear understanding on the part of faculty, administration, and students, of the institution's primary educational objectives. This is the heart of

Jacob's findings concerning the peculiar influence which certain small colleges had on their students' values, and it is also a central finding in other, more recent research.

A prescription for excellence in a small college, then, might be written somewhat as follows. First of all, the institution must identify its institutional objectives clearly and delimit them. In terms of a logical sequence, this identification of institutional objectives should come first, but in terms of the realities of human interaction, it is more likely that the objectives to which the faculty is willing to commit itself seriously will emerge only as the faculty and administration work through such difficult and crucial problems as the elimination of courses, the revision of course content, and the revitalization of classroom instruction. If such activities are undertaken only periodically, they can be severely traumatic. Even in institutions where curriculum review is a continuous process they are mildly traumatic. However, this very trauma also serves the purpose of keeping every member of the college community sharply aware of the institution's objectives. The painfulness of adhering to them keeps him aware of them and their importance.

The second element in the prescription for excellence in a small college is the difficult and continuous activity of designing and presenting a program which does not simply follow established patterns copied from other institutions but instead fulfills the delimited objectives of this particular college. The third element is the discovery and employment of distinctive methods of instruction which are new and imaginative and which will directly contribute to fulfilling the institution's delimited objectives. The fourth element is the establishment and maintenance of an administrative organization which can facilitate the program, and the fifth is that even the buildings and other physical facilities, when they are replaced or remodelled, be designed to suit the program rather than to imitate facilities in other institutions.

How does institutional research contribute to all of this? By now, if I have accomplished my objective, this should be apparent. Institutional research is the systematic, purposeful study of the collegiate institution itself -- the students, the faculty, and the organization and administration of the college. It is the administrative tool which colleges may use to know more about their own characteristics and problems and to investigate the devices which other institutions are using to meet similar problems. In some colleges institutional research will be the key to the revitalization and improvement of the entire institution because it will provide the impetus to a thorough reappraisal of the institution; in other colleges institutional research will be the administrative tool which contributes to better educational programming, better institutional management, and even -- if that must be the objective -- to economy.

Institutional research officers concern themselves with many aspects of the collegiate institution -- students, faculty, curriculum, organization and management, and others. This breadth of interest and responsibility needs to be formally recognized at the time institutional research activities are undertaken either by making the institutional research officer directly responsible to the president or by clearly and officially announcing the institution-wide nature of these particular activities if institutional research is assigned to an office which normally has less than college-wide responsibilities, such as the office of a dean or registrar. Many institutional research officers claim that another important characteristic of a successful institutional research program is a clear separation between research -- the study of a problem-- and the subsequent administrative decision concerning what is done about the problem. They argue that an institutional research office is a service office that provides information and assistance to all of the institution's administrators and to such groups as committees of the faculty. Whether or not it is really possible to separate advice from the decision to which it pertains is problematical, however.

The value of an institutional research office stems from the facts that (1) it has a staff capable of undertaking research, (2) the staff has the time for this research because it is unencumbered by other responsibilities, and (3) that staff at least theoretically is able to approach each new problem without a bias. There is no faster way to incapacitate an institutional research office than to assign to it administrative responsibility for carrying out its own recommendations. The cumulative effect of this is to embroil the office in day to day administrative activities which use up its free research time and give to the office, both actually and in the eyes of other administrators and faculty members, a set of vested interests of its own.

When an institutional research office is newly established, where does one look for the person or people to staff it? For most institutions, and especially for small colleges, the answer must be that you look to your own faculty and administrative staff or else to the pool of people from whom you would normally turn for additional faculty or staff. The number of people in the country with actual experience in an institutional research office is still small and the demand for them is growing rapidly. Even major universities are finding they must train their own. Therefore, the practice among institutions of all sizes has been to identify a person regardless of academic field who is interested in studying the institution itself. This man will make a good institutional research officer if he has intelligence, if he has the ability to work well with other people, if he has a knack for research and some training in research techniques, if he has the curiosity to conceive a thousand questions, the wisdom to ask only a hundred, and then the self-discipline to write a genuinely concise report, and if in addition to all this he has patience.

Such an institutional research officer will need from the college administration a clear definition of the institution-wide nature of his responsibilities, support at the appropriate times when the going gets rough, and once again, patience. The college administrator will find that his institutional research officer, more likely than not, is a strange cross between administrator and faculty member. He has the curiosity which characterizes a good faculty member and like a good faculty member he values thoroughness; yet, like a good administrator, he believes that knowledge is most valuable when it can be applied in some meaningful way. He is valuable to the institution precisely because he combines the talent of administrator and faculty member, but it is inevitable that at times he will appear to college officials too little like an administrator and to the college faculty too much like one.

The choice of a place to begin -- which studies to undertake first -- usually grows out of the specific needs of the individual institution.

In some institutions the greatest need is to know more about the student body. Who comes to the institution? What are their academic accomplishments to date, and what are their deficiencies? What are their financial straits? What are their ambitions and their future plans? In short, what are their needs and to what extent does the existing program at the college meet these needs or fail to meet them? In other institutions, the most pressing need is for information about the faculty. What are their collective strengths and weaknesses? What is their work load? What are their attitudes toward students, and toward the institution itself? In what ways and to what extent can the institution influence these capabilities and these attitudes through deliberate programs of faculty development? In still other institutions, the most pressing need is for curriculum revision or for studies in other areas.

A surprising number of published research studies are available which deal with small and medium-sized colleges. Not all of these are institutional research studies by any means, but many of them are valuable to an institutional research officer because they provide either information or ideas or both. Some of these studies are the result of work done in the small colleges themselves but more often they represent studies which were conducted by researchers at a major university or a foundation but which used one or more small colleges as the laboratory. This type of research does not always emphasize the fact that it deals with small and medium-sized institutions, but an examination of the study itself frequently will show this to be the case. A related source of studies dealing with small colleges is the large and still growing literature about community colleges, some of which now deals specifically with institutional research in community colleges. The community college--particularly the public community college -- is a very specific and distinctive type of a small college. However, the usefulness of much of the junior-community college literature to institutional researchers in other types of small colleges should not be overlooked. The techniques for studying problems can be quite similar even when the results of a study will be used in quite dissimilar ways.

Simply to indicate the variety of topics they cover, it may be appropriate to mention a few of the published studies which deal with small colleges or which suggest studies appropriate to small colleges. An excellent study of financial operations in a representative group of small colleges is the Sixty College Study and the follow-up Sixty College Study -- A Second Look which analyzes and describes in detail the income and expenditure patterns in a group of 60 small colleges. Over half of these institutions have enrollments of less than 1,000. The much publicized and controversial study by Beardsley Ruml and Donald Morrison titled Memo to a College Trustee deals with the financial problems of small colleges and the possibilities for solving at least some of those problems by a reorganization of the curriculum. Ruml and Morrison suggest that by carefully defining institutional objectives, by eliminating courses which do not directly contribute to those objectives, and by adopting new instructional techniques including some large classes, economies can be effected in small colleges which will permit the colleges to substantially increase faculty salaries and make them competitive with those in larger institutions.

An example of an altogether different type of research about a college is found in Burton R. Clark's volume The Open Door, A Case Study in which Dr. Clark, a sociologist at the Center for the Study of Higher Education at the University of California, reports on a fairly exhaustive series of sociological studies of San Jose Junior College in California. The study deals with such factors as the relationship of the college to the community in which it is located and which it was established to serve, the backgrounds and abilities of the students, and the character of the institution as it was influenced by its student body. This volume suggest innumerable studies which might be undertaken by an college interested in knowing more about its students and its own operation. Another volume which is filled with provocative sociological and psychological studies of American higher education is the newly published volume The American College edited by Nevitt Sanford. The 30 contributors to this 1,000-page volume have reported on such a vast array of studies dealing with institutions of all types that this one volume alone will suggest enough studies to keep an institutional research office busy for a number of years. Of course, not every study that is done in one institution needs to be repeated in every other. The choice of studies which are most needed or most appropriate to a particular institution will vary from one college to another.

A volume titled The Small College Meets the Challenge, the story of the Council for the Advancement of Small Colleges, by Alfred T. Hill, is filled with reports of studies and activities undertaken by small colleges that were seeking to improve themselves. An article in the March 1962 issue of Liberal Education describes the complete reorganization of the program at Southwestern University, a small liberal arts college in Texas. Institutional research is not mentioned in the article, but the reorganization depended heavily upon the type of self-study that institutional research programs provide.

Certain types of studies are appropriate to colleges regardless of their size. A number of such studies are suggested by the material in the book titled Evaluation in Higher Education by Paul Dressel and his associates. The subject of the volume is the evaluation of instruction and the material in it is pertinent to institutions of all sizes but seems especially appropriate to the interest of small colleges which are almost exclusively teaching institutions.

The institutional research officer in a small college needs help. Frequently, his institutional research assignment is a part-time one; almost by definition his experience in institutional research is limited to precisely whatever he has been able to do in his present job; often his travel budget and sometimes even his library budget is limited. One way to help a new institutional research officer develop his capabilities is to give him sufficient money to accumulate a small library representative of what others have done in other institutions. Much of this material is free but some of it is not. He should also have sufficient travel money to visit other institutions and to attend one or two institutional research conferences each year. For the past three years, SREB has held a summer conference on the general techniques of institutional research and for the past two years SREB also has sponsored a separate summer conference on research pertaining specifically to college students. Next May, at Wayne State University in Detroit a national conference for institutional research officers will be held and such a national conference undoubtedly will become an annual affair.

However, all of this still leaves the institutional research officer isolated for most of the year from other institutional research officers. This is part of one of the problems a small college constantly faces -- the isolation of each specialist from day by day contact with others who are doing similar work. An excellent solution to this problem, insofar as institutional research officers are concerned, is in just the kind of inter-institutional cooperation which is taking place at the cluster of small colleges in Alabama and west Georgia that are represented at this conference. Inter-institutional studies conducted by a group of small colleges offer a number of important advantages but the most important of them probably is the markedly increased effectiveness of the institutional research job that is possible at each of the individual colleges. The exchange of ideas and materials, the sharpening of concepts and procedures, and the guidance which has been made available by Auburn makes possible a quality of research which would be unlikely if each institution had to rely only upon the efforts of one, often part-time, individual.

Institutional research is still a new undertaking in most institutions. This is particularly true in small colleges. Its function within the college is in some respects analogous to the function in society of the college itself. The college provides to young men and women knowledge about themselves and the world around them and if they are wise, these young people use this knowledge to improve and enrich their lives. Similarly, institutional research provides to faculty and administration a detailed knowledge about their own collegiate institution and the setting within which it must work -- knowledge which can be used to improve and enrich the college experience.

THE SUCCESSFUL COLLEGE ADMINISTRATOR

Howard F. Aldmon*

The position of department head is generally regarded as being of prime importance in the structural organization of a college or university. The department head is the administrative officer directly in charge of an instructional division. Usually, he is responsible to the dean of the college, who in turn operates under the president or his representative designated to coordinate the total academic program. The department head acts in a staff relationship with those in charge of business affairs and student personnel work.

Although the value of the position, department head, is recognized, a limited amount of valid information related to it is available. Few studies concerned with the position or the operational behaviors of individuals who have assumed the position in colleges or universities have been attempted. As a result of inadequate information, many staff members and administrators view the position with disdain.

The literature provides some interesting characterizations of the department head. A recent article likened the department head to a combination housewife, queen bee, and midwife[1]. An earlier article referred to him as "A Racehorse with Plowhorse Duties[2]. Caplow and McGee, in The Academic Marketplace[3], were not content with a composite characterization;

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[1] Editorial in The Journal of Higher Education, 32:459-61, November, 1961.

[2] Lowry Axley, "Head of a Department: A Racehorse with Plowhorse Duties", Clearing House, 21:274, January, 1947.

[3] Theodore Caplow and Reese J. McGee, "The Academic Marketplace[2] (New York: Basic Books, Inc. 1958), pp. 196-197.

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they established a typology of department heads. Their types included "The Robber Baron," "The Lord of the Mountain Fief," "The Yeoman Farmer," and "The Gentleman Adventurer."

These descriptions may appear to be cynical and slightly jaundiced, but they, nevertheless, indicate the necessity for serious study of the position. Higher education requires department heads who understand the nature and purpose of the position.

The purpose of this study was to establish critical behavioral requirements of the department head as derived from data received from three institutions of higher learning: The University of Tennessee at Knoxville, Tennessee; The University of the South at Sewanee, Tennessee; and Western Carolina College at Cullowhee, North Carolina.

Modification of the Critical Incident Technique was employed in gathering data. The Critical Incident Technique was selected since meaningful behavioral characteristics of a person are more easily established when the person is faced with critical problems or situations. Basic deviations from the recommended Critical Incident Technique included incidents reported by department heads who were the central role figues in the incidents and the exclusion of a time limitation.

Each department head was given six five-by-eight cards designated as Forms W-1, W-2, W-3, X-1, X-2, X-3. On Form W-1, the department head was requested to describe a practice, service, or activity in which his behavior had been most effective. Form W-2 requested that he tell exactly what he did in the situation, and on Form W-3 he was asked to tell why he thought his behavior had been most effective. The same procedure was used with Forms X-1, X-2, and X-3 on which the department head recorded ineffective incidents.

Each staff member received six cards designated as Forms Y-1, Y-2, Y-3, Z-1, Z-2, and Z-3. Form Y was used to record incidents in which their department head had performed effectively, and Form Z included delineations of ineffective incidents.

One-hundred thirty usable incidents, seventy effective and sixty ineffective, were received from the three institutions. The incidents were reported by thirty-two department heads and forty-nine staff members representing thirty different departments. Four general areas of study--education-psychology, science, mathematics, and music--contributed the largest number of incidents.

Numerous department heads and staff members who failed to report incidents advanced reasons which may explain why various facets of higher education have been immune to study. The comments of a department head summarized the criticism of the instrument. He wrote, "Questionnaires are always questionable. This one is so personal I prefer not to answer it."

A staff member had this to say.

> I regret to return these cards unanswered, but I sincerely feel that significant data cannot be obtained on questions of this type when the evaluation is a local one. Complete frankness is necessary for a valid answer, and it is not likely to be obtained in this survey.

The report of a staff member indicated opposition to studies in which professors evaluate each other. He said:

> While I am sure this request was made in the utmost sincerity and good faith, please pardon me for saying that I do not feel that it is proper for professors to file reports upon each other. It would upset the spirit of mutual trust and good will which should prevail in an academic community. If I felt that reports were being filed on me, I would feel that my academic freedom were in danger. Please, therefore, excuse me from making an answer.

Closely related to the above statement were the comments of another staff member. He replied:

> I regret that I must refuse to participate in your study which attempts to identify effective practices in administration. Although I am usually willing to cooperate in carrying out business and educational research, I feel that it would be unwise to judge my colleagues either through a mental evaluation or analysis-much less in writing.

Several department heads and staff members reported effective practices but failed to report ineffective ones. A staff member wrote:

> I would prefer not to comment on this phase for the following reasons: (1) my subordinate position on the staff does not always allow me to know the complex conditions surrounding the smooth running of this institution. Therefore, it is impossible for me to evaluate my department head's actions when considered from an "over-all" aspect and (2) what might appear to me to be improper action might, in reality, be the only plausible action for the good of the college. I believe, in view of this, that it would be unwise to name any action or activity "least effective" without knowing the full situation and conditions."

A department head commented:

> I am sorry, but I do not think I can fit into this pattern. My performance as department head seems to me to be made up of day to day activity, without any very precise either high or low-performance. I cannot think of any critical situations, I am afraid.

One of the most enlightening statements came from a staff member who wrote, "When I want to undertake research, I go to the library ... Such a study would be undertaken only by people in education."

The data were analyzed (1) to ascertain critical tasks and critical task areas of department heads, (2) to identify effective behavior, (3) to identify ineffective behaviors, and (4) to establish categories of behaviors. A jury comprised of staff members and advanced graduate students was utilized in analyzing the data.

In order to establish the critical behavioral requirements, the data were synthesized by (1) considering the behaviors as they occurred in critical task areas, (2) combining the categories of effective behaviors with the categories of ineffective behaviors, and (3) stating behavioral requirements based on both the effective and ineffective behaviors included in the categories.

Examples of Effective and Ineffective Incidents

Effective Incidents:

Without doubt, the department head must take the initiative in promoting needed action in his department. A department head and a member of his staff illustrated such action in a common incident. The report of the department is presented.

> A colleague in .... refused repeated requests to surrender the only key to the toilet, located in the Department of .... Naturally this provoked critical situations among the faculty and students in the Department of ...., especially since the only relief facilities were located four floors below.
>
> I personally removed the door from the hinges, removed the lock and replaced the door, thus making the toilet available for staff and students.

An incident submitted by a staff member exemplified the effectiveness of the department head as a staff counselor. He wrote:

> I was on the verge of quitting teaching over an extended period of time. I did not really want to quit but felt forced to do so. Through the continued patience and encouragement of my department head, I was able to work out my problems. I believe this resulted in good for the department as well as for myself.
>
> The department head listened sympathetically to me and gave me the benefit of his greater experience. He wisely did not force the issue and let me work things out for myself.
>
> It is the only performance which would have resulted in my continuing to teach. I think that I am a good teacher, and the profession cannot afford losses. Furthermore, I am happier than I would be if I had quit.

Ineffective Incidents

The ineffectiveness of the department head was portrayed in a variety of incidents. A department head had this to say about his ineffectiveness as an instructional leader:

> Several years ago I allowed the President of .... to talk me into developing a science program around the theme, "Ain't Nature Grand."
>
> We brought in several high priced men for each of the courses in botany, geology, and astronomy and furnished buses for their travel. The students had a grand picnic while the faculty members were having a well paid vacation.
>
> As a result of these procedures, my own staff became disgruntled about not getting to teach in the summer or teaching for very low salaries. We neglected our academic fields. Our students had a good time, but there were questions about the educational value of such courses.

A staff member delineated the ineffectiveness of his department head as a student advisor: He commented:

> A student, considering majoring in ...., entered the office of the department head (by appointment) seeking information which might help him to decide whether to major in .... or ....
>
> The department head asked immediately: "Do you plan to major in ....?" When the student replied, "I'm not certain; I'm here to get information which may help me to decide," the department head said, "Then, why in the hell are you taking my time if you don't know. Get out of here until you make up your mind!"

Thirty-one critical tasks were derived from the effective incidents, and thirty-nine were derived from the ineffective incidents. There was an aggregate of forty distinct critical tasks with a total frequency of 386. When the forty tasks were analyzed by the jury, ten critical task areas emerged. The task areas included Curriculum, Instruction, Institutional Operation, Public Relations, Staff Personnel, Student Personnel, Finance and Business management, Physical Facilities, Evaluation, and Departmental Operation. Staff Personnel was the task area identified most frequently.

Two-hundred fifty-five statements of behaviors were abstracted from the seventy effective incidents. Seventy appeared in incidents submitted by department heads and 185 in incidents reported by staff members. Approximately 34 per cent of the behaviors were placed under the task area, Staff Personnel.

The sixty ineffective incidents included 205 statements of behaviors, sixty-nine in incidents prepared by department heads and 136 in incidents reported by staff members. The 205 statements represented forty different behaviors. Over 50 per cent of the behaviors were relative to the task area, Staff Personnel.

Further analysis of the thirty-seven effective behaviors and forty ineffective behaviors suggested the following behavioral categories: Integrity and Self-Control, Consideration, Cooperative Planning, Scientific Problem Solving, Change, Communication, and Management. The behavioral category indicated most frequently was Cooperative Planning. Sixty-five effective behavioral statements and forty-five ineffective statements were included in the category.

Department heads included 2.84 behavioral statements per incident, and staff members averaged 3.96 statements per incident. Since staff members reported more behavioral statements per incident, one might conclude that the staff member either had a greater awareness and understanding of behavior than did the department head or that it was more difficult for a person to perceive and report his personal behavior.

Critical Behavioral Requirements

Seven critical behavioral requirements of the department head were developed from the effective and ineffective behaviors included in each of the seven categories. They were referred to as critical behavioral requirements since they represented behaviors derived from critical incidents.

Statements of critical requirements were based on the combined behaviors included in each of the categories. Each requirement was stated in a positive manner. The requirements when considered together provided a description of the effective department head as viewed by practicing department heads and staff members. A discussion of each requirement follows.

The department head acts with personal integrity and displays emotional stability in administrative performances. Basic to the effectiveness of the department head are two personal characteristics, integrity and self-control. Without these characteristics, he cannot hope to command the respect of those persons with whom he associates.

Integrity and self-control are enunciated through various administrative behaviors. First, the department head operates according to certain beliefs which he understands and defends in the face of opposition. This, however, does not mean that he refuses to examine ideas or suggestions contrary to his own beliefs; it means that his acceptance of an idea is based on the intrinsic worth of the idea rather than on the position or status of the person advancing the idea. Second, the department head recognizes his own limitations. Personal mistakes and weaknesses are admitted rather than covered or projected on others with whom he works. Third, although he may disagree with his associates, he does not generally attribute their actions to personal or selfish motives. This is indicative of his recognition of the worth, dignity, and integrity of other persons. Fourth, the department head respects the work of other departments and institutions and does not engage in destructive criticism of them. In the operation of his own department, he elicits no special favors from the central administration, but he does ask that the requests of the department be given due consideration with requests from other departments of the institutions. Fifth, the department head makes others feel at ease in his presence. He is aware that instability in himself produces the same effects in other persons. Furthermore, he encourages and accepts constructive criticism of himself and the department. Sixth, in making evaluations of other persons, he employs the best objective means available. He does not evaluate other persons on the basis of personal feelings.

The department head shows consideration for others; he recognizes the value of the efforts and contributions of departmental and institutional personnel. The department head is afforded many opportunities to show consideration for those persons with whom he associates. When personnel are faced with personal problems, he readily gives of his time and effort to be of assistance in the resolution of their problems. He shows interest in matters which are considered important by others and encourages personnel to initiate activities or programs which may be of value to the department. Departmental assignments of staff members are made in accordance with interests and competence. He understands that staff members perform more satisfactorily when they have duties commensurate with their interests and competence. However, when a staff member or student is "off base", he counsels with the person. The counseling is done in the confines of his office, rather than in the presence of other persons.

The department head recognizes that the efforts and contributions of each staff member are of value to the department. In order to encourage and facilitate contributions from others, he assists new personnel in developing understandings about programs of the department and the institution. He does this by orienting each new staff member to the department, introducing the new staff member to personnel of the institution, and setting aside time in his personal schedule for conferences. He assists the total staff by attempting to secure adequate supplies and equipment for use in the department. In addition to these considerations, the department head gives apprcpraite recognition to those persons making valuable contributions to the department. He commends the person verbally or submits a written commendation to the central administration of the institution.

The department head shows consideration through his support of the purposes of the institution. He works harmoniously with all persons and agencies concerned with the realization of the aims and objectives of the institution.

The department head provides for cooperative planning; he effects such planning by involving all personnel concerned when formulating policies, activities, and programs. Closely related to the department head's responsibility for communicating freely and effectively with other persons is his responsibility to plan cooperatively with those persons concerned with various activities. An activity dictated by a department head is likely to receive little if any support from staff personnel. Endorsement and support for a departmental activity is conditioned basically by the degree of participation staff personnel have had in planning it.

The effective department head arranges for cooperative planning by providing staff meetings and attempting to interest staff personnel in the activities of the department. He encourages group discussion and incorporates pertinent suggestions into the proposed activity. Further, he consults the agencies or committees of the institution charged with the responsibility of approving and coordinating the total program of the institution.

When considering existing activities and policies, the department head encourages staff personnel to offer constructive criticism as a basis for evaluation and improvement.

The department head seeks the resolution of problems through scientific procedures of problem solving; he encourages the use of scientific problem solving procedures by others. Generally, the department head who makes snap judgments, who fails to identify and take action on problems, and who ignores evaluation is least effective in his performances. Effective performances by the department head are contingent upon his recognizing, defining, and treating problems scientifically.

As an educational leader, the department head analyzes and evaluates situations in a scientific manner and assists others in resolving problems scientifically. Actinn to him is based on data which allow for intelligent decisions. In the operation of the department, he makes evaluation a continuous process. Each activity and program is scrutinized for strengths and weaknesses. When serious problems face the department, he seeks the services of consultants who he feels can be of service. Also, when he desires to have matters clarified, he does not hesitate to consult these persons with greater understanding of the matters in question. When new data are contrary to his own beliefs, he remains receptive and alters his beliefs accordingly.

The department head realizes that change is inevitable and attempts to base it on established needs within the department; however, he recognizes that change should be evolutionary rather than revolutionary. Change in curricula, instructional methodology, schedules, and administrative practices is fought vigorously by those persons who fear disruption of the status quo. But to the effective department head, change is inevitable. He recognizes that as an administrator it is his responsibility to direct orderly change in his department so that the program may keep pace with a constantly changing society. As a result, he does not support rigid and inflexible teaching schedules and curricula. With the assistance of his staff, he attempts to identify the needs of the department and lays plans for meeting them. Although he assumes this initiative in promoting change, he allows ample time for consideration and study of proposed changes before effecting them.

The department head communicates freely and effectively with other persons; he realizes that maximum efforts and results are attained only when those persons concerned with a program are informed. To a great extent the effectiveness of a department head is governed by his desire and ability to communicate freely and effectively with other persons. People accept more readily and work more arduously on activities and programs about which they are informed. The development of an environment conducive to the free exchange of information rests primarily upon certain behaviors of the department head.

In group discussions, the department head listens attentively and does not monopolize the session. He remains "open" to suggestions, but he does not tolerate unduly long and indecisive group discussions. When presenting his own ideas, he is deliberate and avoids remarks which are not pertinent to the presentation. Also, he offers data to support his idea or position on an issue. When questions arise, the department head interprets or gives a full explanation of the policy in question. On occassions staff members and students in attempting to resolve their personal problems seek counsel with the department head. He acknowledges their requests by listening patiently and offering whatever advice he feels is appropriate. Since he maintains information about personnel and their work in the department, he is often able to detect problems and offer counsel prior to the maturation of the problem.

The department head further communicates effectively with lay persons and agencies. He does this by informing himself of the services of the department and institution, and when requests for such services are made, he explains the service and how it may be secured.

The department head provides for proper management of the department; he secures adequate funds, shares responsibilities, and arranges his personal schedule in such a manner that essential services are not curtailed. Proper management of the affairs of the department seems to be vital to the effectiveness of the department head. Although he may meet most or all of the other behavioral requirements, effectiveness may not be achieved unless various behaviors relative to management are incorporated into his behavioral pattern.

The effective department head gives consideration to the financial affairs of the department. As an administrator, he works to secure the funds necessary for financing the programs and activities of the department. He expends the funds wisely and refrains from operating "out of his hat". This necessitates the preparation of an adequate budget, financial accounting, and the maintenance of records.

The department head shares the operative responsibilities of the department with staff members. He delegates certain responsibilities and commensurate authority to members of his staff. However, he coordinates the total program and maintains constructive control to insure fulfillment of assignments. He arranges his personal schedule to include those services for which he has personal responsibility. He honors established policy and consults with other officials of the institution when new programs or activities are being considered. The department head encourages the full utilization of departmental resources. Programs, activities, and schedules of the department are organized to allow students and other interested persons the opportunity to reap maximum benefits.

The Role of the Dean of Students

Emory Holland*

In these remarks I wish: (1) To review the study which I made last year on "The Role of the Dean of Students at West Georgia College," and, (2) to discuss briefly some of the projects undertaken at West Georgia College as a result of the study.

West Georgia College is one of the nineteen colleges in the University System of Georgia. It is coeducational and traditionally has more men than women students. Last year degrees were offered in elementary education, history, mathematics, English, and biology. For the coming year majors have been added in chemistry and sociology. The average enrollment last year was 1053. The anticipated enrollment for 1962-63 is 1200. The vast majority of West Georgia College students come from northwest Georgia.

The need for a study on the role of the dean of students resulted in 1960 when the position of dean of students was created at West Georgia College. Although much had been written on personnel programs in colleges and universities in the past few years, little effort had been directed toward determining the total job of a dean of students.

The study was to determine what the role of the dean of students at West Georgia College should be. To achieve this objective the following sub-problems were identified:

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1. To examine in detail the present personnel program of West Georgia College;
2. To make a comprehensive examination of the professional literature to determine the present practices of deans of students;
3. To use the findings from the literature as a basis for constructing an interview schedule to be used in determining the important responsibilities of deans of students at selected institutions;
4. To conduct face-to-face interviews with the following persons:
    - A. Deans of students at six institutions which are located in the Southeastern states comparable to West Georgia College.
    - B. Deans of students at the three institutions receiving the majority of students transferring from West Georgia College.
    - C. Twenty staff members and sixty students at West Georgia College to determine their ideas and perceptions concerning the role of the dean of students.
5. To indicate implications for the dean of students at West Georgia College on the basis of information secured through the foregoing avenues.

In beginning the study, it was learned from an extensive review of the professional literature that college personnel programs have come rather universally to include fourteen services. They are:

1. Recruitment
2. Admissions
3. Orientation
4. Working with parents
5. Counseling
6. Records
7. Discipline
8. Student activities

9. Correlation of student needs with curriculum
10. Student housing and dining
11. Student Health
12. Financial Assistance
13. Placement
14. Evaluation of the student personnel program.

Some of the literature also gave consideration to the philosophy underlying a student personnel program and to college personnel work in the future. Much information was obtained on practices of deans of students in institutions of higher education. Following the review of literature, interview schedules were developed for determining the major responsibilities of deans of students.

After considering each sub-problem, and analyzing and comparing the data collected, it was possible to delineate implications for the dean of students at West Georgia College. I think these implications have some validity for all college personnel. I believe that this is especially true for deans of students in institutions comparable to West Georgia College.

Implications for the dean of students at West Georgia College were:

1. Philosophy - In all sources of data, there was general agreement on the philosophy underlying a personnel program. The philosophy subscribed to by these sources can be labeled what the literature describes as "the personnel point of view." The personnel point of view provided the following implications for the dean of students.
    a. The student personnel program should encompass the student as a whole. This concept gives attention to the student's physical, social, emotional, spiritual, and intellectual development.

   b. In determining and carrying out the student personnel program, faculty and student involvement is essential to an effective program.

2. Recruitment - There was not complete agreement on recruitment of students among the sources of data. Some implications, however, were derived for the dean of students. He should help provide leadership in scrutinizing the recruitment activities. In doing so, the following should be considered:
   a. Student involvement in recruitment activities.
   b. Staff and student involvement in formulation of recruitment policies.
   c. Clarification on the person responsible for the coordination of the total recruitment program.

3. Admissions - The majority represented in each source of data, except in the professional literature, were in general agreement on the responsibilities of the dean of students for admissions. The majority of the participants from each source, other than the literature, did not believe that the dean of students had the primary responsibility for admissions. They indicated, however, that the dean of students and his staff should assist in this area. From the above data the following implications were inferred for the dean of students:
   a. The dean of students should work closely with the admissions committee or act as an advisor.
   b. The dean of students and his staff should work closely with the admissions officer in administering and using the results of entrance examinations.

4. Orientation - All sources of data were in substantial agreement that the dean of students should have a major responsibility for the orientation program. The importance of staff and student involvement was also stressed. The sources revealed the following implications for the dean of students:
    a. The dean of students has a definite responsibility to provide leadership in planning, organizing, initiating, and evaluating the overall orientation program.
    b. Orientation should be continuous. This includes pre-college orientation, the "orientation week," and orientation courses. The staff and students should be involved in all phases of the program.
5. Working with parents - Approximately 50 per cent of the respondents of each source of data agreed that working with parents was an important realm of a personnel program. They stated that the dean of students had a definite responsibility for administering this service. The ensuing implications were derived for the dean of students.
    a. A systematic attempt should be made by the dean of students in cooperation with the existing counseling committee to evaluate the present efforts in this area.
    b. More effort should be made to encourage parents to visit, call, and write the college (I feel stronger about this matter, the longer I remain in this work).
6. Counseling - Each group of respondents agreed that the area of counseling was a key service in the personnel program. Each

group also concurred that the dean of students, along with other staff members, had a responsibility for this program. The data provided the following implications for the dean of students:

   a. More provision should be made immediately for personal counseling, vocational counseling, and academic counseling.

   b. Consideration should be given to the feasibility of using more students in the dormitory counseling program.

7. Student records - There was not agreement among the sources in the area of student records. Further, there was not agreement on the responsibilities of the dean of students for this area. An analysis of the data produced the following implications for the dean of students:

   a. A committee should be established to study the present record system. Special emphasis should be placed on: (1) where records should be kept, (2) kinds of records which should be kept and what should go in them, (3) who should have access to records, (4) how records should be used, and (5) who has the principal responsibility for records.

   b. A special effort should be made by the total staff to help students understand what kinds of records are kept, why they are kept, and who has access to them.

8. Discipline - The majority from each source of data with the exception of the faculty at West Georgia College, were in substantial agreement on the areas of discipline and student regulations. The majority in all categories were in agreement that the dean of students has a key responsibility in these areas. The implication

derived was that the dean of students should provide leadership in setting up and assisting a faculty-student committee to study present methods of handling discipline, to examine the present rules and regulations, and to make recommendations for changes.

9. Student Activities - The majority of the respondents from each source were in general agreement on the area of student activities. They were also in accord that the dean of students had a primary responsibility for coordinating this program. The implications for the dean of students from these findings were:
    a. The dean of students has the responsibility for working with the student government association. He and his staff should also provide leadership for the residence hall councils.
    b. The faculty sponsors, the students, and the administration should strive toward a better understanding of the various clubs on campus. This should involve efforts to clarify the function and the purpose of the organization. Also, this should entail a close scrutiny of the educational value of these organizations.
10. Student Housing and Dining - Fifty per cent or more of the respondents from each source agreed that the dean of students had a major responsibility for student housing. With the exception of the students, the majority of whom thought the dean of students had at least some responsibility in the area of dining services, the majority of respondents from each source agreed that the dean of students did not have a responsibility for the dining service. In the area of student housing and dining the following implications were derived for the dean of students:

a. The dean of students and his staff should assume the responsibility for directing the housing program.

b. Residence hall councils can be effective in making a residence hall activities program function. The dean of students and his staff should provide an opportunity for such an organization in all residence halls.

c. Consideration should be given to the desirability of forming a food services committee comprised of administrative officers, faculty, and students. This committee should have periodic meetings with the dietitian and comptroller.

11. Student Health - The literature, the majority of deans in comparable institutions to West Georgia College, and the deans in institutions receiving students from West Georgia College, were in substantial agreement that the dean of students had a definite responsibility for student health. The majority of faculty and students agreed somewhat in this area, but they concurred only to a limited extent with the above sources. Implications derived for the dean of students were:

a. The health program should become an integral part of the personnel program. It necessitates a high degree of articulation between the dean of students and the director of health services.

b. Consideration should be given by the health committee on making the student health program a part of the dean of students' organization.

12. Financial Aid - The majority of the respondents in all sources of data agreed that the dean of students had a key responsibility

in the area of financial aid for students. The following ideas from the data were inferred for the dean of students:

- a. The financial aid program should be a part of the dean of students' responsibility. It should include scholarships, loans, and part-time jobs.
- b. An effort should be made to expand the financial aid program.

13. Correlation of Student Needs with Curriculum - The majority of respondents in each group were in agreement that the dean of students had a responsibility in the area of correlation of student needs with curriculum. An analysis of the data produced the following implications for the dean of students:
    - a. A systematic effort should be made by the dean of students and his staff to cooperate with the faculty in gathering and sharing information that might prove beneficial to the student.
    - b. The dean of students should work closely with the curriculum committee on the feasibility of advanced placement and remedial work.
14. Placement - The majority representing each source of data agreed that placement was an important service that should be provided by the college. They did not agree, however, on the responsibilities of the dean of students for this service. The following implications were derived for the dean of students:
    - a. Immediate steps should be taken by the dean of students to develop a placement service at West Georgia College.
    - b. The administrative officers, faculty, and students should be consulted in working out long-range plans for a placement bureau.

15. Evaluation - Although the deans in institutions comparable to West Georgia College and in institutions receiving students from West Georgia College were doing little evaluation, they were in general agreement that they should be making a more concentrated effort. A substantial majority of selected faculty and students believed that the dean of students had a major responsibility in evaluating the student personnel program. The data provided these implications for the dean of students.

    a. The dean of students, with the help of students and faculty should evaluate all phases of the personnel program on a continuing basis.

    b. Periodic reports on the results of evaluations should be made to the total staff and student body by the dean of students or his staff.

16. The Future - There was a common thread which ran through most comments regarding the role of the dean of students in the future. Most respondents believed that the dean of students' job will become more and more one of coordination. This attitude stemmed from two assumptions: (1) A large increase in enrollment, and (2) the need for more specialized services as society becomes more complex. The implications for the future role of the dean of students were:

    a. More emphasis in all areas of counseling;

    b. A more varied standardized testing program with clearly defined purposes as to how the tests results will be utilized to promote a better educational program;

c. More emphasis on graduate placement;

d. Expansion of the financial aid program;

e. More study on admissions procedures;

f. More faculty and student involvement in the total student personnel program;

g. Additional personnel officers;

h. More extensive use of machines in doing routine tasks;

i. More evaluation.

During the past year several of the foregoing implications became the basis for the dean of students' work; some are being pursued currently; some have not yet been considered.

At this point, I would like to turn to a few projects on which we have worked this year at West Georgia College. Some of these projects were a direct result of the study just discussed.

The first I would like to mention is housing. Because of insufficient housing on campus this past fall, we had the task of helping 215 men students find housing off campus. Our problem was actually two-fold: (1) to find adequate housing for students, and (2) to plan a housing program which would offer the students living off campus similar opportunities to students living on campus.

The first job was to find landlords who were willing to convert houses into residence halls. We found them cooperative. Next, we had a meeting of all interested landlords to discuss such topics as furnishings, amount and collection of rent, general regulations, and supervision. Policies were developed for administering the town housing program (If anyone is interested, I will be happy to mail them a more detailed explanation of the program). Two policies which I feel have made a good impact on the program are:

1. Each house which accommodates six or more men shall have a student counselor (carefully selected upperclassmen) who shall be available to assist the student and landlord in any way possible. The student counselor shall not pay rent for his room.
2. Each house which accommodates six or more men shall have a room, complete with tables and chairs, set aside for a study room.

Another project we undertook in the area of housing was to determine the effects of housing on grade point averages. This study was completed with the assistance of Dr. John Hills and Harry Downs, Staff of the Board of Regents, University System of Georgia.

The study included freshmen living in campus residence halls with two roommates, campus residence halls with less than two roommates, town residence halls, and private homes. The variables in the study included freshmen average grade (FAG), SAT-Verbal, SAT-Mathematics, and high school average. The Gulliksen-Wilks test was used in analyzing the data.

It was concluded that the type of housing had no significant effect on freshmen grades during fall quarter, 1961, at West Georgia College. This conclusion has caused a number of questions to be raised by personnel at West Georgia College. Three significant questions in my mind are: (1) Has the value of residence hall life on grade point averages been overemphasized? (2) Is the residence program ineffective at West Georgia College? (3) Are there factors other than grades which need to be considered in evaluating housing programs? I feel much more study needs to be done in this area.

The next project I would like to mention concerns vocational information. For the past three years West Georgia College has found that almost half of the incoming freshmen have not decided on a career. For several years a file of vocational information was maintained; however, use of this material was infrequent. Mr. W. O. Barrow, Senior Counselor at Auburn University, offered a helpful suggestion. He recommended the building of wooden boxes, one for each category of information we had.

The maintenance department at West Georgia built twenty-one, 4" x 11" x 15", wooden boxes. Each box was labeled, e.g., ART. All the pertinent information on careers and educational opportunities in Art was put in this box. The same procedure was followed for twenty other career fields. The boxes are stacked on a table which is located in a room adjoining the office of the Dean of Students. Students are encouraged to come in at any time to use the information and to discuss the material. Also, they may take boxes to the reception room and browse through them. A vocational materials bulletin board is maintained in the Administration Building. It keeps the students informed on the types of materials available in the vocational information room. Through this arrangement the use of vocational materials has more than tripled. We have just collected data for a study on vocational choice. Processing these data is currently underway.

I would like to mention one other project that we feel is going to be beneficial to our students. It is the centralization of our financial aid program. The program includes scholarships, loans, and part-time work. It is administered by the office of the dean of students with the help of a financial aid committee. We have found it desirable to have our students apply for financial aid rather than for a specific scholarship, loan or part-time job.

When a student applies for assistance, he is asked to come for an interview, and at that time, an attempt is made to plan a program which will best meet the needs of the individual student. In many cases, we find that a scholarship, part-time work, or loan or combination of these best meets the needs of a particular student.

In conclusion, I would like to emphasize that there are many more problems at West Georgia College on which we should focus the spotlight of research. Also, I should stress that we have found more questions than answers. Nevertheless, it is my firm belief that in the years ahead we must emphasize research in higher education and put the results of our efforts to work. We cannot afford to do otherwise.

Faculty Development in Small Colleges

Starr Miller[*]

Before long, the Southern Regional Education Board will publish a report, prepared by Ken Wilson and me, presenting the findings of an attempt that I have made to determine the extent to which small colleges of t[illegible] utilize generally accepted procedures for faculty development a[illegible]ve they are in the use of these procedures.

More [illegible] the purposes of the study were as follows:

1. To [illegible]e the extent to which selected procedures, or designs of procedures, exist in small colleges of the Southern region for the purpose of:
    a. helping faculty to be assimilated and advance the purposes of the college
    b. helping faculty to maintain a sense of morale and security
    c. helping faculty to be stimulated for professional growth and for the development of teaching effectiveness.
2. To identify development procedures judged to be most useful by administrators and faculty members.
3. To provide relatively detailed descriptions of particularly significant uses of these procedures.

Data were secured through the use of questionnaires, a follow-up depth questionnaire, and, finally, visits and interviews in twenty selected colleges.

Throughout this study, it became increasingly clear that a study of this sort is fraught with the problems and challenge of the variations in concepts of what constitutes faculty development procedures. Confusion

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[*] Dr. Miller is the Chairman of the Division of Education at Georgia Southern College.

exists first in the varied concepts of faculty development presented in the literature. In some instances, one finds only very limited segments of faculty life included while in others, consideration is given to almost the total life of the faculty member.

Further lack of clarity was demonstrated by some administrators whose responses to the questionnaires indicated that they assumed a faculty development procedure to be a formal phenomenon not found in small colleges. Some few indicated that any talk about faculty development meant "indoctrination" or "snoopervision" to them. Some truisms were recited in this regard, for instance, "all persons grow in different ways and we do not wish to force a pattern."

From the questionnaire, it was noted that the greatest portion of the respondents tended to represent faculty development in an enumeration of practices that reflected heavy emphasis on the orientation type procedures. Further, the intensive study indicated that the deans felt the colleges were more successful in these kinds of procedures than in any others. Actually, very few respondents enumerated procedures that would touch the spectrum of faculty development.

Some deans thought smallness and close association constituted special assets of the little college in creating an atmosphere for development. These deans implied that understandings and growth are "caught" through personal contacts in a casual atmosphere permitting faculty to discuss ideas and receive help from colleagues. One such dean's concept was that "intellectual development depends primarily upon the individual, his energies, his heart's desire" for availing himself of experiences afforded by an academic environment. Other deans who emphasized the casual atmosphere pointed up the opportunity for deans and department heads in small colleges to have personal conferences with faculty members, this especially in view of the strong personal ties in the small group.

Regardless of what or how many practices were being employed, a great portion of the deans expressed the feeling that their colleges were not doing a complete job of development and that they were far from satisfied with what they had accomplished in this regard.

The small college should have a special concern for faculty development because of the relationship between the nature of such development and the nature and problems of such colleges. The papers and speeches on the advantages of the small college are legion. While these colleges often are presented as Utopian places to "liberate and enoble minds and spirits," or "to influence student values," the effervescent public relations man who prepared a "blurb" glowingly pointing up his college as a place to "experience togetherness" may have touched near a strength of the small college--the potential for being a place permitting the development of a community of interests around mutual purposes. Being possessed of this potential of size and nature then, there are no reasons why a faculty cannot be developed fruitfully in the small college. This is possible, though, only if the small colleges can be creative in communicating to faculty a sharper and clearer understanding of what the college is attempting to do. For instance, many of the persons who in the course of this study expressed a concern for a strong liberal arts program seemed to equate strength with the presence of a set of course offerings. A region-wide look at the offerings of the small liberal arts colleges of the South will convince one that practically all disciplines have been admitted in recent years. Some administrators may have had to cut back to a "strong liberal arts curriculum" because of economy moves, but the curriculum of the "arts liberales" has been subject to many omissions and additions during the years. To achieve better results in faculty development, the good liberal arts colleges need to concentrate more on the theme rather than the framework and mechanics of the liberal arts. Through the ages, this--the emphasis on the spirit of free and independent inquiry likely has been more consistent than the offerings. Possibly this emphasis is a myth. If so, it is one too fine to be discarded. One cannot be assured that even the theme is present when a college describes itself as a "liberal arts college" though. In one college that looks most like a liberal arts college to many, the Dean avoided the use of the term. When questioned about its omission, this scholar of literature said, "The term is meaningless."

If our small colleges are to develop faculty to meet the needs of the liberal arts, they, as a group, need to determine what their distinctive role in liberal education is. But more, it can be suspected that some colleges are liberal arts in name only and actually inhibit the spirit of free inquiry needed by the faculty. One faculty member, in reporting on a college in which he had taught, stated, "They wanted me to defend what they interpreted to be established truth." It is difficult for a college to be liberal arts with the spirit of free inquiry, not to mention a good faculty development program, if the college expects defense of certain dogma or prohibits inquiry into new truths. In one college noted traditionally among educators for its strengths, the president is a person who believes the college has more to lose by denying freedom than by permitting it. He is willing to "ride out" community pressures when a faculty member has, in his writings or in his speech, expressed views and ideas that are unpopular. The studies of career decisions show that often colleges suffer the loss of faculty because the conditions, customs, and practices are not such as to hold them. If the small liberal arts colleges are to survive, a great number of improvements must be brought about. The development of better teaching through the development of faculty is one of these improvements.

The small college is indeed fortunate when it causes a wise and able faculty member to become so identified with it as to remain in the college to give quality to the program there. However, the small college also appears to play a real part in the development of faculty for positions of greater responsibility in the profession. In this study, it was found that approximately half of the faculty members who changed colleges the previous year went to positions considered to be professional advancements. Many contend that the small undergraduate liberal arts college is the gem that still holds the true gleam of emphasis on teaching. These places then may be not only a proving ground for new faculty, but places for embuing them with interest in the teaching process as they move into greater professional opportunities.

The people of the small colleges should have a special opportunity for faculty development and an interest in the procedures for it because of the nature and needs of small colleges. The problem of improving faculty is not limited to small colleges; nor is the desire for finding techniques and gimmicks for bringing it about limited to the South. Indeed, the problem is perennial and universal and the solution does not come easily through the speaking of "open sesame" with a few procedures.

Many of the problems facing colleges today have their origin in numbers--numbers of human beings wishing to be admitted and numbers of faculty needed to care for them. As recently as ten years ago, the real problem for many small colleges was that of getting students in sufficient numbers to permit operation. Now students are knocking on all doors while deans put in overtime attempting to secure faculty in sufficient numbers to care for expansion and losses.

For a variety of reasons, the smaller colleges may well be the losers in the increasing competition for faculty members. The problems of recruitment and retention of faculty add to the difficulties of maintaining quality of faculty.

First of all, the South may need 50,000 additional college teachers by 1970 to meet the projected increases in enrollment and replacement in faculty for vacancies occurring through retirements and deaths. Resolution of this almost panic-inspiring numbers problem is a monumental task, particularly in the face of the current rate of production of doctoral graduates.

Secondly in the recruitment problem, there is a nation-wide increase in the percentage of new faculty members with less than the doctorate, and some observers of graduate education claim that the characteristics of doctoral training programs may actually constitute a deterrent to the preparation of college teachers. Compounding the problem for the small colleges is the fact that they often attract faculty who do not possess teaching experience and professional accomplishments.

Thirdly, scarcity of faculty increases the inter-college mobility of personnel, putting the South in the national professional market as other regions attract faculty members by higher salaries and other benefits. In this connection, the small Southern colleges face a critical problem in holding their faculty members--a problem of relative salaries not only on an inter-regional basis but also intra-regionally. Faculty members who wish to leave small colleges for higher salaries can be attracted to higher-salaried positions in universities of the South as well as to colleges and universities outside the region. Retention of faculty is clearly a special problem of the small college--some experience a loss each year amounting to from one-fourth to one-third, resulting in efforts that center largely in getting "this year's" faculty.

Finally as a part of recruitment problems, some studies suggest that college teachers enter the profession with inadequate preparation for the total role of college teaching and many fail to develop identification with the institution and with teaching after they enter. The faculty members of small colleges, particularly, may not be fully prepared, and the special demands of the small colleges--calling for much more than a knowledge of subject matter--require that they continue to grow and develop.

In such a context, it is evident that the assimilation and improvement of faculty is, and must be, a special concern of the small college. A partial but important effort to cope with problems of assimilation and improvement may be an attempt on the part of the administrators of small colleges to assess and strengthen the procedures that they follow in helping faculty members to fit in, to grow in teaching effectiveness, to become motivated for personal and professional growth, to maintain a sense of security and morale, and to advance the purposes of the college.

Efforts of an administration to provide opportunities for these developments should result in a general upgrading of the faculty--and, improved service to the college.

Faculty development procedures generally can be classified as relating to one of three goals: (1) to help faculty members fit in and advance the purposes of the institution, (2) to facilitate professional growth and improvement in teaching effectiveness, (3) to maintain a sense of security and morale within the faculty. It would seem that the advantages of faculty development may come as colleges exhibit evidence of activities to accomplish these three goals.

To give you some specific indications of the kinds of procedures small colleges are using to accomplish these goals, I want to cite a small portion of the findings from the questionnaire. As a part of the design of this study, there were 22 procedures systematically selected and judged to be relevant to faculty development. Deans were asked to indicate whether or not these procedures were in use in their colleges and to give a rating for the value of each procedure used.

Ten of the 22 practices were reported by more than one-half of the institutions. The two practices most frequently reported are "financial assistance for attendance at professional meetings" and "scheduled conferences in some departments for consideration of teaching problems" which were reported by some three-fourths of all small colleges. Between 60 and 70 per cent of these institutions reported that they employed the following practices:

Periodic self-study of the college,
Financial assistance for further graduate study,
Pre-college workshops for all faculty members,
Private offices for all faculty members,

Faculty handbook,
Orientation sessions for new faculty members, and
Special collection of library materials on higher education.

With the exception of the last mentioned practice, which was below average in terms of rated value, the more frequently employed practices enumerated above constitute, in the judgment of those employing them, a cluster of highly valuable practices from the point of view of faculty development.

Although reported as being used by less than one third of the small colleges, the sabbatical leave at half salary or more was rated as "among the most valuable" practices for faculty development by 56.7 per cent of those reporting its use, leading all other practices in this respect. Other practices low in frequency of use but which received average or higher ratings of value are the following:

Assignment of an experienced teacher to work with a first-year teacher on teaching problems,
Distribution of a salary schedule which clearly shows opportunities for advancement,
Active faculty committee on the improvement of instruction,
Organized faculty discussions of college teaching,
Series of visiting lecturers on higher education, and
Adjustment of teaching load to allow time for research and writing.

Practices that were more infrequently used--none by as many as one third of the colleges were:

Systematic visitation of classes for the improvement of teaching,
Load adjustment for committee work,
Load adjustment for off-campus consulting or lecturing,
Funds for publication of faculty research, and
Allowing first-year teachers to carry less than a normal teaching load.

It is of some interest to note that the infrequently reported practices tend to (a) be somewhat expensive (e.g., sabbatical leaves, funds for publication), (b) require formal reduction in faculty teaching load, or (c) involve faculty members in non-teaching activities with or without reduction in load.

It is of interest to compare the judgments with those obtained from selected faculty members through interviews at twenty institutions. Some 111 faculty members were interviewed at the twenty institutions visited. At each institution where the dean reported a given practice, faculty members interviewed were asked to rate the practice in the same set of terms as that involved for deans. From the point of view of the faculty members interviewed, the following practices were among the highest ranking in terms of value:

Sabbatical leaves at half salary or more,
Private offices for all faculty,
Financial assistance for attendance at professional meetings,
Adjustment in load for research and writing,
Financial assistance for further graduate study, and
Less than normal load for first-year faculty members.

Among the practices ranking lowest in rated value--though typically rated as of more than limited value--were the following:

Faculty handbook,
Collection of library materials on higher education,
Pre-college workshop for all faculty members,
Active faculty committee charged with improving instruction,
Visiting lecturers on higher education, and
Orientation sessions for new faculty members.

Faculty members and administrators tend to agree that the practices included on the questionnaire are worthwhile. However, several practices ranking highest among the total of twenty-two in terms of deans' ratings of value occupy relatively low rank based on faculty composite ratings, including, for example, such practices as use of a faculty handbook, pre-college workshop for all faculty members, and orientation for new faculty. Relatively low-ranked by deans but high in terms of faculty rankings were such practices as adjustment in load for research and writing and less than normal load for first-year faculty members.

Thus, while faculty members and administrators tend to think of practices generally as being worthwhile, there are significant differences in the perceived value and importance of certain practices, as between these two groups, which must be kept in mind.

For the purposes of this paper, I do not wish to linger on reporting specific findings but wish to deal with general reflections on the entire experience in the year of study. Some of my impressions are:

1. PRACTICALLY ALL SMALL COLLEGES USE SOME FACULTY DEVELOPMENT PROCEDURES AND IN [illegible] COLLEGES THE MORE FREQUENTLY REPORTED PROCEDURES ARE THOSE RECEIVING HIGHER VALUE RATINGS.

Some faculty members would develop their abilities regardless of their locations simply because of the kinds of persons they are. A few small colleges would have seasoned, capable, and growing faculty members even if a number of the faculty development procedures of this study were not utilized, simply because of purposes, reputation, peer group influences, and ability to attract good faculty. Most small colleges, though, are not of this kind and the possibilities are slim for all colleges to secure enough qualified faculty in the days ahead. For most of the colleges the use of the procedures constitutes an upgrading that will be even more necessary in all colleges in the future. While both faculties and administrators indicated that they place value on faculty development procedures, some colleges appear to be more effective in their methods of encouraging the kind of growth that is compatible with the job to be accomplished by the institution.

There is evidence of activity in the region in establishing faculty development procedures but likely not enough creativity. Visitation in selected colleges afforded an opportunity to study many interesting faculty development activities and some trail-blazing activities. When one looks at the state of development in the total of the 214 colleges studied, though, he is caused to feel that not a great deal of a truly creative nature is being done. There is extensive use of procedures, yes. But sometimes it can be suspected that people have instituted some of these procedures simply because they heard they were good at some other place. The results can be negative when not associated with proper understanding on the part of the leadership of the college. Lack of creativity is further demonstrated in that much of the success in the use of faculty development procedures is still limited to the process of orientation.

2. THERE ARE IMPLICATIONS THAT THE IMPROVEMENT OF FACULTY DEVELOPMENT DEPENDS VERY MUCH ON THE ADMINISTRATORS AND HOW THEY VIEW CONDITIONS AND ACTIVITIES IN THE SMALL COLLEGE.

If the college's concern is for the elements that make for good results when students meet with teachers, it is likely to be reflected in development activities even in colleges limited in financial resources. The concern must be greater though, than the concern on the part of the dean for routines such as computing grade averages or the apprehension of students for disciplinary infractions. It must be greater than the president's concern for such adjuncts as landscaping, football teams, and the passionate plea for the survival of "Goodole College." Emphasis on faculty development should be placed in the larger context of total institutional development. The emphasis within the institution must be on functions of development that contribute to the accomplishment of the purposes of the institution. If emphasis is to be on teaching, there should be procedures to stimulate the understanding of teaching, the securing of help on problems, and the searching for new materials. If emphasis is on the influence of the college on lives of students, the faculty should be enabled to grow in understanding students and in counseling functions. If emphasis is to be on the total growth of persons, then opportunity for the total growth of faculty will be beneficial. If emphasis is to be on the climate of intellectualism, as it influences students, then something to nurture this in the activities of the college is necessary.

While leadership for faculty development is a responsibility of administrators much also rests on the values held by the faculty. Once a dominant faculty mood and character is established in a small college, it tends to generate great powers to attract its kind. The experience of talking with college people in twenty selected colleges convinces a person of one thing. Word does get around to give faculty an image of what it is like to teach in certain colleges. This is an amazing thing. They know about the strengths and weaknesses of other colleges and the eccentricities of the Dean. They can tell you about opportunities in other colleges or how faculty are treated there. Since a dominant faculty mood can breed its kind, there is a constant responsibility for the leadership of the college to stimulate the group to excel the influence of what one dean classified as "a small cohort of hopeless professors who represent the zero end of faculty decay." The effort to cause the development and improvement mood to survive is a special challenge for the dean.

Impressions of this kind cause me to suspect that the reputational image of the college among other faculties can be influenced by faculty development procedures.

3. COLLEGES ATTRACT FACULTY MEMBERS AS A RESULT OF THE IMAGE PROJECTED BY THE COLLEGE AND THE PHILOSOPHICAL ORIENTATION OF THE FACULTY MEMBERS.

Half of the faculty members selected for interviews had baccalaureate origins in small colleges. In fact, two-thirds could be classified as having such origins if those from colleges with small college likenesses rather than enrollments were included. (Baccalaureate origin such as Florida Southern, Northwestern Louisiana State.) These same ratios hold true not only for the interviewees but also for the total of the faculties in the twenty colleges. College faculty members interviewed may be those who early in their college experience became oriented to the small college and who, because of this orientation, may have come to appreciate the nature and philosophy of it.

Even a casual glance at _The Baccalaureate Origins of Doctorates in the Arts, Humanities, and Social Sciences Awarded in the United States_ will indicate that the greatest source for the origin of baccalaureate is the larger universities. Berelson points out that it is the universities that supply the graduate schools and that well over half of the faculty members in undergraduate colleges had their origin in universities as opposed to only one-third in liberal arts colleges.

The colleges selected for interviews and special study may have been fortunate enough to have performed some bootstrap operations in attracting persons who have been preoriented to the small college in spite of the fact that the great majority of the graduate school product has been prepared in university undergraduate and graduate programs and often is inclined to wish placement in the same type of program rather than in a program with primary orientation toward teaching.

The faculty members in the twenty selected colleges joined these colleges simply because they perceived them at the moment of decision as the best available opportunities for their personal aspirations and their philosophical orientation. The features that were attractive to faculty in most of these colleges were those things that impressed them as an opportunity to be in good relationship with other faculty and administration offering a program to their liking, in a small college with basic purposes to their liking, in a location to their liking, with financial benefits to their liking, and in an atmosphere permitting freedom and participation.

Further, they have remained at their colleges because they have been influenced by the persons there as they related themselves to each other in developing an atmosphere of intellectualism, vigor, morale, and unity. They also have been influenced by the opportunity present for personal and professional growth and the related potential of the college and its vitality. General feeling of identification because of success experienced in the situation also was important.

4. SOME SMALL COLLEGES HAVE DONE SOME PLANNING FOR THE COORDINATED DEVELOPMENT OF THE COLLEGE AND THE FACULTY AND HAVE INSTITUTED SOME PROCEDURES TO FACILITATE THIS DEVELOPMENT.

This can be sensed or recognized in some colleges as a person talks with the administrators and faculty and as one compares the information obtained from these persons. In visiting twenty campuses, the study director was concerned in part with identifying institutions in which there was some structure in a group of procedures for the development of faculty. Interviews with administrators and faculty members provided a primary basis for determining whether or not, for example, the administration expressed a clear concept of "faculty development" as a process, and of the types of developmental procedures which were most appropriate for achieving the expressed objectives of the development program; and, whether or not aims and objectives of the development program had been communicated to the faculty. Criteria of "structure" were (a) conceptual clarity in respect to the process of development, (b) consistency of concept with the circumstances--aims, objectives, and resources--of the college, (c) conscious administrative implementation of a pattern of developmental procedures, and (d) faculty awareness of program for development.

On the basis of these procedures, some six colleges were identified in which the criteria enumerated above appeared to have been met in a general way--though by no means in uniform manner among the six colleges. Because of the relatively subjective nature of the procedure employed in identifying "structured" programs, detailed comparisons of the six institutions with the remaining fourteen were not considered appropriate.

An effort was made to elicit from faculty members interviewed reasons for coming to their respective institutions, degree of satisfaction with their current employment, and related questions in order to determine the possible relationship between presence in a college of faculty development procedures with some "structure" and institutional appeal in recruitment and retention of faculty. Slight but not statistically significant differences favoring the six colleges were found in respect to expressions of faculty satisfaction indicating that they planned to remain for the foreseeable future at their current institutions. In addition, certain sources of "satisfaction" with their current institutions were more frequently cited by faculty at the six colleges with "planned" faculty development programs than by those interviewed at the remaining institutions--viz., quality of colleagues, atmosphere of freedom, voice and involvement in the program of the college, and a teaching emphasis with some related research opportunities.

It is of interest to report an impression that in the six institutions, faculty members interviewed tended to evidence a higher degree of agreement regarding purposes of the institution, for example, and of identification with these purposes. Because such differences as those cited are confounded by variables in addition to the factor under consideration it cannot be concluded that they are attributable to differences among the colleges in respect to nature of the faculty development program per se.

As a result of the visits the writer suspects that the best use of faculty development procedures produced not simply an adaptation to the college and an awareness of the growth opportunities there but also a special kind of attitude that has to do more, possibly, with the role of the faculty in relating to certain "cherished values" such as freedom, involvement, atmosphere.

In these few colleges, it was possible to sense from the faculty a feeling of excitement about the combination of teaching, keeping intellectually and professionally alert, and service to the college and profession, and there seemed to be a feeling that all these activities were generally respected, encouraged, nurtured, and rewarded by the administration and the college community.

5. THE SUCCESS OF FACULTY DEVELOPMENT PROCEDURES IS INSEPARABLY RELATED TO A SENSE OF WELL-BEING ON THE PART OF THE FACULTY.

Though faculty by nature adopt personal and professional goals, the faculty members of small colleges appear (possibly peculiarly) to look with favor on relating their personal goals to those of the small college. Among the majority of the faculty interviewed, proper faculty development was conceived as something to facilitate the rendering of service to the college, but at the same time, something to create a feeling of freedom for faculty to do their best.

Many of the elements of well-being, and of morale and security, stem from the wisdom of the administrators in setting up and carrying out personnel policies. An understanding of the aspirations of the faculty mind is necessary if the administrator is to develop the skills for relating policies and procedures to the real needs of faculty. As I have already indicated, a functioning faculty development program can exist when there is a clear concept of the kind of faculty development procedures that are needed and useful in relating the aspirations of faculty to the purposes of the college. This must be followed by a conscious implementation of this group of faculty development procedures if an awareness of these procedures and their results is to develop on the part of the faculty. This kind of program is characterized by the fact that it is conceptualized, consistent with purposes, consciously implemented, and productive of faculty awareness. Comprehensive programs of faculty development, as opposed to occasional procedures, must result in a sequence of activities consisting of 1-selection, 2-assimilation (grasping purposes, economic and domestic security, orientation), 3-identification (atmosphere, developing a feeling for the profession), 4-stimulation (keeping faculty alert and alive, encouraging experimentation in teaching, avoiding complacency in method), and 5-recognition and involvement (freedom, voice, administrative support).

Evidence of such programs may be exhibited as follows: One, if faculty members are to fit in and advance the purposes of the college, it is important that the aim be defined and focused. Some small colleges have found ways to focus aim in a manner that enables faculty to identify with the aim and to understand their role in advancing the purposes. Once this aim is clearly defined, faculty improvement can be related to the goal to be accomplished. If sympathy of the faculty for this aim is desired, it must be clearly and imaginatively focused to match the faculty members' own philosophical orientation. Two, stimulation for professional growth and for the development of teaching effectiveness comes from an atmosphere created by people, resources, and efforts that are concentrated on this goal. This stimulation takes place because of a peer influence that grows where there is a sense of permissiveness, freedom, administrative empathy, and moral support. Three, faculty members maintain a sense of security and morale as a result of both tangible and intangible recognition. Salaries, grants, domestic security, all are important, but faculty members want to know that the administrator has an interest in their work that grows from an understanding of the educational process. Appreciation that stems from empathy is a reward for many small college faculty members. Not all of the problems of building faculty security and morale are due to low salaries. Failure of the administration to sense the need for more intangible assurances can be unfortunate. One of the interesting characteristics of the human animal is his ability to guess that he will be freed of all the undesirable features of his present suffering in a promised land. He often can feel that he sees this promised land in a college over the way and often he can make his decision to move to the other institution for features that go along with the $1,000 increase, as well as for the increase itself.

Faculty development is continuous, not responsive to drastic changes. One administrator heard complaints of faculty members about committee work and, taking these expressions seriously, decided to relax the faculty by abolishing a number of committees and transferring this work to administrators. His summary of the resulting situation was that the academic robes of medieval times worn by the college faculty are indeed appropriate symbols when change is discussed.

Truly, it is easier to hope for faculty development than to bring it about. Often the list of procedures in use can represent little more than a manifesto of things hoped for. If these procedures are to represent more than an illusion of progress, they must be used as ingenious and adequately programmed steps from present problems to future settlements.

"Faculty Development" as a concept holds forth no promise of salvation. Nonetheless, it is believed that action can be taken to strengthen and improve approaches to faculty development.

First of all, it is believed that accomplishment of the general goals of faculty development depends on the willingness of the president to allocate to a dean the responsibility and the support necessary to carry out this important job. Once this is done and the dean has been freed from things of lesser importance, he can--if he has the initiative to perform or direct, and/or encourage studies and experiments--do much toward building a faculty that is better qualified generally and that is characterized by excitement over the combination of teaching, keeping intellectually and professionally alert, and rendering service to the college and the teaching profession. In this responsibility, the dean will attempt to show faculty members that their jobs are respected, encouraged, nurtured, and rewarded. He will give more careful attention to the presence of and best use of these faculty development procedures in terms of their meaning to faculty members. Possibly he will be thought of more as a Dean of the Faculty than as a Dean of the College. As such a dean, he probably should be far more specialized in experience, preparation, and special research skills than the Dean of the College normally is.

Next, among the administratively supported procedures for faculty development are some that can be instituted for the faculty as a group. The major responsibility of the college at this level is in planning for adequate support of the faculty through improved salary schedules; time for professional pursuits; tenure, promotion, and retirement arrangements; assurances of academic freedom; appropriate teaching facilities and conditions. Faculty members, as individuals, can be encouraged to project their long-range plans for personal development with the faculty member defining his goals and the college attempting to relate them to college projections and goals. A major requirement following logically from the foregoing, is that each college must determine for itself--in terms of its own circumstances and resources--what the major goals of faculty development should be.

A third implication for action suggested by this survey involves the possibility that a disproportionate number of small college faculty members have their baccalaureate origins in such institutions. If such is the case, more emphasis on recruitment to teaching careers in small colleges might well be warranted among students in small colleges. Selected undergraduate students might be given experience as tutors, laboratory assistants, or teaching assistants, while following a planned program of readings in, for example, American higher education.

A college or a group of colleges would do well to find some way to make an assessment of faculty attitudes about teaching in small colleges. This also suggests the need for studies of why faculty members leave the small colleges and how their leaving may be influenced by their images of the small college, its leadership, and conditions of service. Studies in the area of those things promoting faculty security and morale likely could bring improved understanding of faculty needs, aspirations, and attitudes.

Finally, the obvious need for the small colleges of the South to determine their distinctive role in liberal education likely could justify foundation expenditure to encourage them, individually, to determine their special purposes. The necessity for this is illustrated when one interviews faculty of small colleges. In each college someone will hold up as a goal the desire to make "this the strongest little college of the South." Think of the fact that there are 228 of these--all eventually to mutually excel each other! A greater sense of purpose is needed.

One additional needed study came from a member of the advisory committee for this project who read the manuscript and suggested a future study that would treat the faculty as a living, functioning group. The study, he feels should deal with "the professor--his habitat, mating calls, Pavlov responses, loud outcries, and protective coloration".

SELECTED PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF ENTERING COLLEGE STUDENTS

James D. Covington*

This is a report of a study of selected personal characteristics of entering college students. The report presents the background of the problem, a formal statement of the problem, the procedures employed in the study, the results of the study and conclusions, implications and recommendations which were derived from the results of the study.

Background of the Problem

Near the beginning of the 1960-1970 decade increased demands were placed upon American colleges and universities. Society began to demand, more than ever before, greater numbers of college and university graduates with advanced technical and social competencies.

An appreciable number of college administrators seemed to realize that in order to meet the demands, institutions of higher education would be required to provide optimum learning situtations for the maximum number of students. Most of these administrators believed also that the intellect was inextricably interwoven with all the characteristics that constituted the total, unified student. As a result there developed a heightened interest in finding out more about students--their background, attitudes, values, needs and aspirations. Broadly stated, administrators needed to know these things in order to know more about how to bring together institution and student for creation of the best possible learning situation for the greatest number of students.

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*At the time of the conference Dr. Covington was completing his graduate work at Auburn University. He is now Dean of Men at West Georgia College. His study was directed by Dr. Michael Y. Nunnery, Auburn University.

The desire to know more about American college students of the sixties was exemplified by the expressions of college administrators and teachers who attended the Conference on Higher Education held at Auburn University on February 17, 1961. The purpose of this conference was to identify and determine possible ways of dealing with some of the more important problems in higher education. During the conference an attempt was made to determine future activities to be undertaken by the institutions represented at the conference. One of the future steps decided upon was a study of characteristics of the students in the individual institutions.

From the discussion of the general background of the problem it can be seen that during the early part of the 1960-1970 decade college administrators did not know enough about the personal characteristics of their students to provide what the administrators considered to be the best possible learning situtations for their students. Neither did the administrators know enough about the personal characteristics of their students to institute selective admissions programs which would ferret out the students who would be more likely to persist through college, thus avoiding loss of space in college that would be caused by dropouts.

From the foregoing problems arose the question which became the more specific problem for investigation in the present study. This question was: What light, if any, would an investigation of selected personal characteristics of entering college students shed upon the problems of bringing together institutions and students for the best possible learning situations and instituting selective admissions programs which would identify potential dropout students?

As the plans developed for the present study the objectives became: (1) to investigate selected personal characteristics of beginning freshmen in 1961 at Columbus College, Judson College, LaGrange College, The Marion Institute, and West Georgia College; and (2) to make comparisons, in regard to these characteristics, between those students in the sample who continued into the second term of the 1961-62 academic year at the same institution and those who did not enroll for the second term at the same institution. The personal characteristics investigated were needs, values, study habits, attitudes toward study, mental ability, clarity of vocational plans, reasons for attending college, educational and family background.

In order to view the selected personal characteristics of the student groups included in the sample, in as many relationships as seemed feasible, the research was designed to answer the following questions.

1. To what extent did the students in the total sample possess the personal characteristics investigated in the present study?
2. Did the total group of entering freshmen students at each of the five institutions differ significantly, with respect to the selected characteristics, from the total group of entering freshmen students at each of the other institutions?
3. Did the dropout students at each of the five institutions differ significantly, with respect to the selected characteristics, from the dropout students at each of the other institutions?

4. Did the persisters at each of the five institutions differ significantly, with respect to the selected characteristics, from the persisters at each of the other institutions?

5. Did the total group of dropout students included in the sample differ significantly, with respect to the selected characteristics from the total group of persisters included in the sample?

6. Did the dropout students at each of the institutions differ significantly, with respect to the selected characteristics, from the persisters in the same institution.

The sample selected for this study included all first term freshmen in attendance at the 1961, fall term, pre-class orientation programs at Columbus College, Judson College, LaGrange College, The Marion Institute and West Georgia College. Criteria used for selection of these schools included proximity to Auburn, Alabama, size of enrollment, attendance of representatives at the Auburn Conference on Higher Education, and diversity of institutional purposes and sponsoring organizations. Stated more broadly, an attempt was made to select the greatest number and greatest variety of institutions that could be feasibly included in a one-year study to be conducted among the group of institutions participating in the Cooperative Program in Higher Education.

The total sample for the study consisted of 1,305 students. Of the total group of 1,305 students, 142 of them, or 10.9 per cent, did not enroll for the second consecutive term at the same institution where they began their first term of the 1961-62 academic year. The 142 students who did not return to the same institution for the second consecutive term were classified as "dropouts." The remaining 1,163 were classified as persisters.

As stated previously in this report, participants at the Auburn Conference on Higher Education expressed a great deal of interest in learning more about the characteristics of the student populations at the individual institutions. More specifically, it seemed that this interest was primarily focused upon attitudes, values, educational and family background, and interest patterns of the student population. These expressed interests closely paralleled those often included by researchers on lists of factors in need of further investigation. Heist and Yonge[1] identified what they believed to be significant areas of research which needed to be conducted among college student populations. In describing these areas, a great deal of importance was placed upon finding out more about student values and attitudes, socioeconomic, ethnic, and religious background. Other sources, found while reviewing literature for this study, also pointed toward the need for research on student values, attitudes, interests and personal background factors.

The personal characteristics considered in this research were needs, values, study habits, attitudes toward study, and mental ability. Personal background factors included age, sex, occupation of parents, parental attitudes toward students' attending college, education of parents, size of high school graduating class, clarity of vocational plans, reasons for attending college, and reasons for attending a particular college. Standardized instruments chosen for the study included the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule - To evaluate the manifest needs of students, the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values - for assessment of student values, the Brown-Holtzman Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes, and the Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Test. A personal data sheet was constructed for the purpose of obtaining background information about the individual students. These instruments were used to gather data at each of the participating institutions.

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[1] Paul Heist and George Yonge, "Why, What, and How Considerations for Research on College Students," Research on College Students. (Boulder, Colorado: The Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 1960).

The data to be analyzed in this study consisted essentially of two types--continuous data, represented by scores on the four standardized instruments and discrete data, represented by responses to the nine factors included on the personal data sheet. Thus, in order to answer the six questions mentioned previously, different types of statistical analyses were necessary.

To determine the extent to which the students in the total sample possessed the personal characteristics investigated in this study, arithmetic means were computed for each of the characteristics measured by the standardized instruments. Percentages and frequencies were computed for the individual factors contained on the personal data sheet.

For each of the personal characteristics measured by the standardized instruments, a single factor analysis of variance was computed to determine whether there existed significant differences in scores obtained among the five student groups. For the factors on which there were found to exist significant differences among the groups, the analysis of variance was followed by Kramer's extension of Duncan's multiple range test[2] to determine between what institutions significant differences existed. This same process of analysis, involving both the analysis of variance and Kramer's extension of Duncan's multiple range test, was used to locate significant differences which existed between standardized instrument scores obtained by the dropout students at each of the institutions. This total process of analysis was used a third time to compare the groups of persisters at the five institutions.

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[2] Clyde Young Kramer, "Extension of Multiple Range Tests to Group Means with Unequal Numbers of Replications," Biometrics, XII, No. 7 (September, 1956), pp. 307-310.

For each of the characteristics investigated by use of the personal data sheet, three computations of Chi-square were done. The first computation of Chi-square, for each of the characteristics, was done to determine whether differences existed among the five total groups in the extent to which they possessed the characteristics. The second computation of Chi-square was done to determine whether differences existed among the five groups of persisters. The third computation of Chi-square was done to determine whether significant differences existed among the five groups of dropouts. A single exception was made in comparing the five dropout groups on the factor of parental attitudes. Descriptive analysis was used in this case because the number of responses to this item was insufficient for computing a meaningful Chi-square value. Inspection of the Chi-square computations was used to find precisely the location of appreciable differences among the groups which were compared on each of the characteristics about which information was reported on the personal data sheet.

Student's "t" was computed for each of the characteristics measured by the standardized instruments to determine whether there existed a significant difference between the scores of the entire group of dropouts included in the sample and the entire group of persisters included in the sample. To determine whether significant differences existed between the entire group of dropouts and the entire group of persisters on the personal data sheet items, Chi-square values were computed and evaluated.

To determine whether there existed significant differences on the characteristics measured by the standardized instruments between dropouts and persisters at each of the five institutions, student's "t" values were computed and analyzed for scores on each of the personal characteristics. Chi-square was used to determine significance of difference between dropouts and persisters at each of the institutions in the degree to which they possessed the personal characteristics included on the personal data sheet.

Findings and Conclusions

Based upon data gathered in the present study, the findings were:

1. For the total sample, approximately 43 per cent of the students came from families in which the principal providers of financial support were employed in professional or managerial occupations.
2. The parents of more than 75 per cent of the students in the total sample strongly encouraged the students to attend college.
3. More than half of the parents had attained an average of four years of high school education or more and approximately one-third of the parents had attended college.
4. The students had attained appreciably fewer high school credits in vocational subjects than they had attained in mathematics or in social science courses.

5. Almost one-half of the students had been members of high school graduating classes of two-hundred or more persons.
6. More than 90 per cent of the students had made at least tentative vocational plans.
7. Reasons for attending college listed as being of most importance to the students were included within a category labeled "To Enhance Job Opportunities."
8. The students chose the particular colleges they were attending primarily because of their location, good reputation, curricular offerings and a variety of more specific personal reasons.
9. The relatively more important needs of students included in the total sample were the needs for intraception, affiliation, change abasement and heterosexuality.
10. The religious motive was the relatively more important value held by the total group of students.
11. The mean score of the total group, on the Brown-Holtzman Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes, was 30.16, which was approximately three score units below the mean of the normative sample for this instrument.
12. The mean score of the total group, on the Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Test was 109, which was more than two standard errors above the mean for the normal adult population.
13. Inter-institutional comparisons of the total student groups revealed that statistically significant differences at the .05 level of confidence or greater, existed among the groups

on all but three of the selected personal characteristics factors. The three characteristics on which the total groups did not differ significantly were the personal needs for exhibition, change, and endurance, as measured by the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule.

14. Statistically significant differences existed between the total group of dropouts and the total group of persisters on the factors of "occupation of parent or guardian," "parental attitudes toward students' attending college," "reasons for attending college" and "reasons for attending a particular college." A relatively greater proportion of dropouts than persisters came from homes supported by persons in service occupations, while a relatively smaller proportion of dropout students than persistors were from homes supported by persons employed in agriculture, fisheries, and forestry. Less positive parental encouragement to attend college was given dropouts than was given persisters and the total group of dropout students placed greater importance on enhancing job opportunities and less importance on personal and social development than did the total group of persisters. Location of the institution which they attended was of relatively greater importance to the total group of dropouts than to the total group of persisters.

15. No significant differences were found to exist between the total dropout group and the total persister group on any of the factors measured by the standardized instruments.

16. Parents of non-public school dropout students had significantly more years of education and more of them attended college than did the parents of dropout students who had enrolled at public institutions.

17. The dropout students of the non-public institutions gave a significantly greater proportion of reasons for attending college other than to enhance job opportunities, to develop further personally and/or socially, and to further their education, than did the dropout students who had enrolled at public institutions.

18. In choosing a college to attend, the dropout group at public institutions were more concerned with educational costs and availability of financial aid than were the dropout students of non-public institutions.

19. On the factors measured by standardized instruments, differences were found to exist among the five dropout groups on the needs for deference, affiliation, heterosexuality, and aggression, and on aesthetic values, political values, study habits and attitudes, and mental ability.

20. Inter-institutional comparisons of non-dropout groups yielded results of essentially the same significance as comparisons among the total groups of the five institutions.

In order to facilitate the reader's making inter-institutional comparisons of the personal characteristics of the five student groups, data obtained about the groups are presented in the appendix.

Results of the investigation of personal characteristics of beginning freshmen at five colleges seem to warrant the conclusion that most of the factors examined did not distinguish between dropouts and persisters. Statistically significant differences were found between dropout and persistor groups on four of the thirty-two personal characteristics factors which were considered in this study. It may be concluded then, that these four factors - "occupation of parents," "reasons for entering college," "parental attitudes toward students' college attendance," and "reasons for entering a particular college," could be considered as factors which might be useful in attempts to identify potential dropout students. There were no statistically significant differences found between dropout and persister groups on any of the factors included on standardized instruments. Therefore, it can be concluded that none of the standardized instruments included in this study were found to be predictive of first term college withdrawal.

A final conclusion which seems to be warranted by the findings of this study is that many differences in personal characteristics existed among the student groups of the five institutions. This conclusion is largely substantiated by statistical analyses which revealed significant differences among the five total student groups on twenty-nine of the thirty-two factors which were investigated in the present study. It should also be noted that, in comparison to the other four student groups, each of the five student groups was somewhat unique in terms of personal characteristics investigated in this study.

Conclusions reached as a result of the present study are not consistent with a great many earlier studies which revealed high correlations between intellective factors, such as those measured by most standardized mental ability tests, and withdrawal from college. However, like most of the earlier research conducted in the area of personal characteristics of college students, relatively few factors, other than intellective variables, correlated significantly with early withdrawal from college.

Results of the present study seem to imply that college administrators, when seeking to relate institutional programs to personal characteristics of their students, should have information about the personal characteristics of students at their particular institution and should not generalize about their own students from information concerning personal characteristics of students at other schools.

This implication is substantiated to a great degree by the diversity of personal characteristics found among student populations included in the present study. For example 33.60 per cent or only one third of the students at institution A were from families in which the primary wage earners were employed in professional or managerial occupations. At institution B, 67.27 per cent or two-thirds of the students were members of such families. At institution E, 21.14 per cent of the parents of entering students had attended college whereas 55.19 per cent of the parents of entering students at institution B had attended college. When comparing institutions A and E it can be seen that 20.36 per cent of the entering students at institution A had been members of high school graduating classes of 200 or more persons as compared to 74.57 per cent of the entering students at institution E.

On the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values there were several noticeable differences in mean scores of the five institutions. For example, the mean religious value score at institution B was 44.26 whereas, the mean score at institution C was 51.05. On the aesthetic value the mean score for institution B was 31.89, or 7.30 score units less than the mean score of 39.19 at institution D. The standard deviation of the collegiate normative group was 9.31 for the religious value and 8.42 for the aesthetic value.[3] On mean intelligence quotient scores two of the institutions differed by 10.02 I.Q. units.

It seems reasonable to believe that differences as great as those denoted here are sufficiently great to contribute to distinctly different campus climates.

For distinguishing between the type of student who is likely to drop out of college and the type of student who is more likely to remain in college, the standardized instruments employed in this study appear to have little value and they are not recommended for such a purpose.

The administrative officials of each of the participating institutions might fruitfully evaluate the information reported in this study about their own students, in light of established institutional purposes and admission policies. These same administrators might wish to evaluate institutional policies and purposes in light of information which was made available to them as a result of this research project.

Additional research is needed to determine further the value of "occupation of parent," "parental attitudes toward students' college attendance," "reasons for attending college," and "reasons for attending a particular college" as reliable factors for the prediction of early student withdrawal from college. For an understanding of why these four factors distinguished between dropout and non-dropout students it is recommended that the five participating institutions conduct research designed for this specific purpose.

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[3] Gordon W. Allport, Phillip E. Vernon, and Gardner Lindzey, Study of Values - A Scale for Measuring the Dominant Interests in Personality. (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1951). (Manual)

It is also recommended that, as a follow-up of the present study, additional research be conducted to discover what changes, if any, will have occurred in the personal characteristics of the students included in this study, while the students were completing a degree at the same college in which they enrolled as beginning freshmen.

Completion of this study made it possible for the researcher to make available to the participating institutions an amount and type of data concerning personal characteristics of students that few, if any, institutions had previously possessed. Therefore, it seems that these institutions have a great deal of information that might be used in learning about relationships, beyond those considered in the present study, between personal characteristics of students and the total educational programs of these institutions. Thus, it is recommended that research be conducted by each of the cooperating institutions for the purpose of discovering what relationships, if any, exist between the personal characteristics investigated in the present study, and achievement and success in college.

APPENDIX

Data Relating to Personal Characteristics of the Total Student Group at Each of the Five Institutions

TABLE 1

OCCUPATION OF PARENT OR GUARDIAN, EXPRESSED IN PERCENTAGES BY INSTITUTIONS

Occupational Classification	Institution A Per cent	B Per cent	C Per cent	D Per cent	E Per cent
Professional or Managerial	33.60	67.27	45.26	48.84	39.24
Clerical or Sales	17.00	13.18	19.71	13.95	17.01
Service	9.48	4.09	6.57	8.53	17.01
Agriculture, Fisheries & Forestry	6.32	5.92	5.11	6.98	2.78
Skilled	25.69	6.36	18.97	17.83	19.79
Semiskilled and Unskilled	7.91	3.18	4.38	3.87	4.17
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

TABLE 2

PARENTAL ATTITUDES TOWARD STUDENTS' COLLEGE ATTENDANCE, EXPRESSED IN PERCENTAGES, BY INSTITUTIONS

Categories of Attitudes Toward Students' College Attendance	Institution				
	A Per cent	B Per cent	C Per cent	D Per cent	E Per cent
Discourage Students' College Attendance	2.37	1.39	2.58	1.97	1.96
Encourage Students' College Attendance	17.23	6.96	13.65	16.14	14.31
Strongly Encourage Students' College Attendance	73.07	75.64	78.23	75.98	77.06
Demand Students' College Attendance	7.33	16.01	5.54	5.91	6.67
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

TABLE 3

TOTAL YEARS OF EDUCATION OF PARENTS, EXPRESSED IN PERCENTAGES, BY INSTITUTIONS

Total Years of Education of Both Parents Combined	Institution A Per cent	B Per cent	C Per cent	D Per cent	E Per cent
0 - 23	57.57	18.36	41.67	30.08	54.77
24 - 31	37.31	62.32	46.21	56.91	42.76
32 or more	5.12	19.32	12.12	13.01	2.47
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

TABLE 4

PERCENTAGE OF PARENTS WHO HAD ATTENDED COLLEGE, BY INSTITUTIONS

Institution	Percentage of Parents Who Had Attended College
A	27.39
B	55.19
C	42.48
D	40.32
E	21.14

TABLE 5

DISTRIBUTION OF UNITS EARNED IN SELECTED HIGH SCHOOL SUBJECTS, EXPRESSED IN PERCENTAGES, BY INSTITUTIONS

	Institution				
High School Subjects	A Per cent	B Per cent	C Per cent	D Per cent	E Per cent
Mathematics	26.87	31.55	28.99	24.76	26.71
Social Science	28.56	31.30	28.92	32.59	29.31
Science	22.87	25.48	23.54	19.37	21.22
Vocational Subjects	21.70	11.67	18.55	23.28	22.76
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

TABLE 6

NUMBER OF PERSONS IN HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATING CLASS, EXPRESSED IN PERCENTAGES OF TOTAL GROUP, BY INSTITUTIONS

Number of Persons in High School Graduating Class	Institution A Per cent	B Per cent	C Per cent	D Per cent	E Per cent
0 - 50	16.80	9.09	8.33	12.80	8.93
50 - 100	34.98	27.72	14.40	16.28	6.88
100 - 200	27.86	19.55	53.79	19.38	9.62
200 or more	20.36	43.64	23.48	51.94	74.57
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

TABLE 7

CLARITY OF VOCATIONAL PLANS, EXPRESSED IN PERCENTAGES BY INSTITUTIONS

Categories of Clarity of Vocational Plans	Institution A Per cent	B Per cent	C Per cent	D Per cent	E Per cent
Definitely Decided Upon Vocational Plans	24.21	24.31	17.39	17.05	33.57
Relatively Certain About Vocational Plans	43.25	33.95	44.20	47.29	31.80
Considering Two or Three Vocations; or, Completely Undecided About Vocational Plans	32.54	41.74	38.41	35.66	34.63

TABLE 8

REASONS FOR ATTENDING COLLEGE, EXPRESSED IN PERCENTAGES, BY INSTITUTIONS

Categories of Reasons for Attending College	Institution A Per cent	 B Per cent	 C Per cent	 D Per cent	 E Per cent
To Enhance Job Opportunities	47.73	49.72	43.53	37.68	53.34
To Broaden Understanding of Our Culture	.50	.71	1.12	.91	.30
To Further Develop Personally and/or Socially	18.13	10.04	21.27	22.56	11.80
To Develop Competency for Social Service	2.82	1.11	3.24	3.39	2.38
To Satisfy Parents or Friends	3.36	3.72	2.86	7.04	2.04
To Further Education or to Get a Degree	23.37	26.40	24.50	22.16	26.76
For Personal Prestige	1.44	1.50	.62	1.30	1.25
To Clarify Vocational Goals, and Miscellaneous Reasons	2.65	6.80	2.86	4.96	2.08
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

TABLE 9

REASONS FOR ATTENDING A PARTICULAR COLLEGE, EXPRESSED IN PERCENTAGES, BY INSTITUTIONS

Categories of Reasons for Attending a Particular College	Institution				
	A Per cent	B Per cent	C Per cent	D Per cent	E Per cent
Because of the Location of School	24.63	4.51	14.08	6.03	40.57
Because of the Cost of College Attendance	9.27	1.07	1.46	2.49	20.69
Because of Availability of Financial Aid	.07	1.64	2.67	.66	2.78
Because of the Size of the School Enrollment	17.12	2.95	18.81	21.89	3.12
Because of the Curricular Offerings	16.00	27.05	21.00	7.08	6.38
Because of the School Affiliation	1.55	0.00	8.74	16.51	.87
Because of the Good General Reputation of the School	19.00	20.08	15.90	10.88	11.74
Because of the Friendliness of People at the School	2.12	.16	5.95	1.83	.27
Because of Relatives or Friends Attended this School	3.10	1.31	3.03	3.67	2.04
For Miscellaneous Reasons	7.14	41.23	8.37	28.96	11.53
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

TABLE 10

INSTITUTIONAL MEANS AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE VALUES FOR INTERINSTITUTIONAL COMPARISONS ON THE RELATIVE STRENGTH OF FIFTEEN MANIFEST NEEDS

Manifest Needs Assessed by Use of the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule	Institution					Analysis of Variance Value (F)
	A Mean	B Mean	C Mean	D Mean	E Mean	
Achievement	12.59*	14.29**	13.04*	12.57*	13.01*	4.94^2
Deference	12.29*	11.59*	12.04*	13.54**	11.85	4.84^2
Order	10.46**	9.68*	9.34*	9.56*	10.82**	3.75^2
Exhibition	14.15*	14.52*	14.44*	12.93*	13.86***	.38
Autonomy	11.83**	12.77***	11.71**	10.38*	12.01***	4.28^2
Affiliation	17.08	15.12**	17.43*	18.38*	15.56**	3.72^2
Intraception	15.61*	14.54*	24.17**	17.34*	15.61*	3.52^2
Succorance	13.26**	11.92**	13.54**	13.76*	12.26**	3.99^2
Dominance	12.46***	15.02***	12.13**	11.95*	13.02**	15.78^2
Abasement	16.63**	14.98***	17.07***	17.24**	15.98*	3.29^1
Nurturance	15.96*	14.01***	16.89**	17.98***	16.08*	15.48^2

TABLE 10 (Continued)

Manifest Needs Assessed by Use of the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule	Institution					Analysis of Variance Value (F)
	A Mean	B Mean	C Mean	D Mean	E Mean	
Change	16.54*	17.33*	16.04	17.33*	16.54*	1.01
Endurance	13.86*	13.29*	13.25*	12.94*	14.33*	-.60
Heterosexuality	16.67**	19.56**	14.09*	14.12*	14.75*	24.58[2]
Aggression	11.90*	13.42**	11.43*	9.91*	12.20*	7.98[2]

For each need means denoted by the same number of asterisks in a row, are not significantly different at the .05 level of confidence.

[1] Significant at the .05 level of confidence.

[2] Significant at the .01 level of confidence.

TABLE 11

INSTITUTIONAL MEANS AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE VALUES FOR INTERINSTITUTIONAL COMPARISONS ON THE RELATIVE STRENGTH OF SIX DOMINANT PERSONAL VALUES

Values Assessed by Use of the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values	Institution A Mean	B Mean	C Mean	D Mean	E Mean	Analysis of Variance Value (F)
Theroetical	39.56***	41.74**	37.52*	36.81*	40.83**	4.93
Economic	41.25*	42.11*	37.42**	35.33**	41.05*	23.89
Aesthetic	33.07*	31.89*	35.00**	39.19***	33.12*	17.24
Social	38.07*	35.19***	39.64***	39.21**	38.11*	3.77
Political	40.35*	44.69***	39.27**	38.82**	40.39*	13.22
Religious	47.61*	44.26*	51.05**	50.52**	46.04*	14.58

For each value, means denoted by the same number of asterisks in a row are not significantly different at the .05 level of confidence.

All of the analysis of variance values in this table are significant at the .01 level of confidence.

TABLE 12

INSTITUTIONAL MEANS FOR INTERINSTITUTIONAL COMPARISONS ON *BROWN-HOLTZMAN SURVEY OF STUDY HABITS AND ATTITUDES* SCORES

Institution	Mean *Brown-Holtzman Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes* Scores
A	30.70
B	25.47
C	30.57
D	28.66
E	33.27

The mean scores of institution A, C, and D were significantly different from the means scores of the two other institutions but the mean scores of institution A, C, and D were not significantly different from each other.

TABLE 13

INSTITUTIONAL MEANS FOR INTERINSTITUTIONAL COMPARISONS ON OTIS QUICK-SCORING MENTAL ABILITY TEST SCORES

Institution	Mean *Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Test* Scores
A	105.73
B	108.62
C	115.75
D	111.55
E	113.65

The mean score for institution A was significantly lower than the mean scores at each of the other institutions. The mean score for institution B was significantly lower than the mean scores at institutions C and E and the mean score at institution A. The mean score attained by students at institution C is significantly greater than the mean scores attained by student groups at all of the other institutions except institution E.

VALUES OF COLLEGE STUDENTS

Galen N. Drewry & Bert L. Sharp*

Advancements in man's discovery of knowledge and the corresponding developments in technology have contributed an unusual challenge to American colleges and universities. Within recent years colleges have been prodded to produce a greater supply of competently trained men and women. In general, institutions of higher education have responded to this expectancy, but along with this challenge has arisen a special responsibility of adding wisdom to skills. College graduates are called upon to possess not only skill and knowledge, but also the ability to make decisions on which rests the fate of millions of people. They must also lead lives which set a worthy example for all men and women.

Most colleges and universities are fairly well committed to providing a liberal education for their students. This includes all students and it is extended to those preparing for all fields, including professional and technical careers, as well as the humanities, arts, sciences, and behavioral sciences. Why this commitment to a liberal education? Answers to this question generally specify aims of comprehension and integration of the major fields of knowledge with the end product or outcome to be a well educated person who expects to live primarily by means of his education or trained mind. Somewhere back of such aims is an assumption that there are certain civilizing values that must be communicated to the student. Some differences exist among institutions as to the amount of stress placed upon various values, but all expect to influence the student's behavior standards, quality of judgment, sense of social responsibility, understanding of themselves, and some general commitment to such moral principles as sincerity, honesty, loyalty, and standards of conduct for decent people.

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What is the meaning of this term value? Jacob (4) and his associates in planning his study conceived of "values" or "value patterns" as preferences, criteria, or choices for personal or group conduct. Thus in this sense, values become an individual's standard for decision making and would normally be identified when it is expressed as a statement or as overt conduct.

How does one arrive at or acquire a system of values? In the main there is generally agreement that one's system of values is acquired slowly and mainly from the influences of the family, friends, and certain social institutions such as clubs and churches. Thus we might say values are "caught" from one's experiences and associations. This, however, is an inadequate point of view because much of the content and subject matter of the humanities and social sciences is concerned with human behavior. When we are concerned with teaching about human behavior, we cannot readily escape being confronted with issues that center around values. How deeply shall we encourage students to probe and explore such issues? What is the teacher's obligation under such circumstances? To confront students with issues, to encourage critical thinking, and to encourage good citizenship, all in some way or another brings the teacher into the role of influencing values. Perhaps it becomes more appropriate to say that values are "taught" as well as "caught."

It has been granted earlier in this paper that while colleges and universities are generally committed to influencing students' standards of behavior, sense of social and responsibility, and quality of judgment, there are differences among them in their statements of intent regarding influences in certain areas. The church-related colleges, for example, make less attempt to dodge the issue of communication of religious values. Institutions also vary in the structure and organization of efforts to communicate values to students through various general education curricula, required orientation, assemblies, and the role of the teacher and outcomes of teaching in terms of changes of belief and behavior of students.

Jacobs (4) summarizes his pursuits to discover what happens to values of college students as a result of their general education and concludes that values of college students do change during the four years of college. He found that there is more homogeneity and greater consistency of values among students at the end of four years of college than when they began. Although there is a variety of social, economic, ethnic, racial, and religious backgrounds, he was able to develop a profile of values that would apply to 75 or 80 per cent of the college students. He has characterized this profile in the following statements:

A dominant characteristic of students in the current generation is that they are gloriously contented both in regard to their present day-to-day activity and their outlook for the future. Few of them are worried about their health, their prospective careers, their family relations, the state of national or international society or the likelihood of their enjoying secure and happy lives. They are supremely confident that their destinies lie within their own control rather than in the grip of external circumstances.

The great majority of the students appear unabashedly self-centered. They aspire for material gratifications for themselves and their families. They intend to look out for themselves first and expect others to do likewise.

But this is not the individualistic self-centeredness of the pioneer. American students fully accept the conventions of the contemporary business society as the contestwithin which they will realize their personal desires. They cheerfully expect to conform to the economic status quo and to receive ample rewards for dutiful and productive effort. They anticipate no die-hard struggle for survival of the fittest as each seeks to gratify his own desires, but rather an abundance for all as each one teams up with his fellow self-seekers in appointed places on the American assembly-line.

Social harmony with an easy tolerance of diversity pervades the student environment. Conformists themselves, the American students see little need to insist that each and every person be and behave just like themselves. They are for the most part (with some allowance for sectional difference) ready to live in a mobile society, without racial, ethnic or income barriers. But they do not intend to crusade for non-discrimination, merely to accept it as it comes, a necessary convention in a homogenized culture.

The traditional moral values are valued by almost all students. They respect sincerity, honesty, loyalty, as proper standards of conduct for decent people. But they are not inclined to censor those who choose to depart from these canons. Indeed they consider laxity a prevalent phenomenon, even more prevalent than the facts seem to warrant. Nor do they feel personally bound to unbending consistency in observing the code, especially when a lapse is socially sanctioned. For instance, standards are generally low in regard to academic honesty, systematic cheating being a common practice rather than the exception at many major institutions.

Students normally express a need for religion as a part of their lives and make time on most weekends for an hour in church. But there is a 'ghostly quality' about the beliefs and practices of many of them, to quote a sensitive observer. Their religion does not carry over to guide and govern important decisions in the secular world. Students expect these to be socially determined. God has little to do with the behavior of men in society, if widespread student judgment be accepted. His place is in church and perhaps in the home, not in business or club or community. He is worshipped, dutifully, and with propriety, but the campus is not permeated by a sense of his presence.

American students are likewise dutifully responsive toward government. They expect to obey its laws, pay its taxes, serve in its armed forces--without complaint but without enthusiasm. They will discharge the obligations demanded of them though they will not voluntarily contribute to the public welfare. Nor do they particularly desire an influential voice in public policy. Except for the ritual of voting, they are content to abdicate the citizens role in the political process and leave to others the effective power of governmental decision. They are politically irresponsible, and often politically illiterate as well.

This disposition is reflected in strangely contradictory attitudes toward international affairs. Students predict another major war within a dozen years yet international problems are the least of the concerns to which they expect to give much personal attention during their immediate future. The optimism with which they view their prospect for a good long life belies the seriousness of their gloomy prophecy. They readily propose some form of a supra-national government as a means of preventing war, but a very large number display only a limited knowledge of and confidence in the United States as an instrument of cooperative international action.

Turning to their immediate preoccupation, the pursuit of an education, students by and large set great stock by college in general and their own college in particular. The intensity of their devotion varies quite a bit with the institution and sometimes with the nature of the students' educational goals. And the real point of devotion is not the same for all. Only a minority seem to value their college education primarily in terms of its intellectual contribution, or its nurturing of personal character and the capacity for responsible human relationships, vocational preparation and skill and experience in social 'adjustment' head the rewards which students crave from their higher education.

This characterization has drawn much attention, and some studies (Freedman, 3) indicate the American college student has been viewed narrowly and should be regarded more positively. Jacob (5) later has indicated there may be a greater variation in values from freshman to senior year than he previously perceived.

Covington's (1) study of characteristics of college students in five small and medium colleges in Alabama and Georgia presents a comprehensive picture of the distribution of certain selected characteristics among the students of the entering freshman classes, of those who dropped out of college during the first term, and of those students who remained in college at the beginning of the second term. A series of questions not contained within the scope of Covington's study regarding value changes have been considered as an extension of his study for this paper. These questions are: What value changes have occurred among students during their freshman year? Are these changes the same among the freshman classes of each of the five institutions? What are the characteristics that distinguish students whose values change from those whose values did not change during their freshman year?

To answer these questions, the third edition of the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values was administered to a random sample of the freshman classes at the end of the freshman year. Individual scores on the test given at the end of the year were compared with test scores from the beginning of the year. Value changes for each of the five institutions were computed.

To ascertain who the changers and nonchangers were, criteria to establish change and no change were arbitrarily set at fourteen and four points of change respectively in any of the six areas of the September and May test scores for the Study of Values. Thirty-nine students whose scores in at least one of the six areas had varied fourteen or more points composed the group referred to as the changers. Thirty-three students whose scores in any area had not changed more than four points on the tests composed the group referred to as non-changers.

Characteristics of Changers and Non-Changers

Data for each of the seventy-two students were collected in the following areas: (1) parent occupation, (2) education of parents, (3) size of high school graduating class, (4) clarity of vocational plans, (5) scores on the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, (6) score on the

Brown-Holtzman Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes, and (7) score on the *Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Test*, Gamma AM form. The student's *t* statistical technique was used to test the differences in the means of the scores for the two groups on each of fifteen areas of the *Edwards Personal Preference Schedule*, the *Brown-Holtzman Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes*, and the *Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Test*.

As shown in Table I a greater percentage of the parents of changers had occupations of a professional or managerial nature than did the parents of non-changers. A relatively greater proportion of the parents of non-changers were employed in agriculture, fisheries, forestry, skilled, and semi-skilled occupational fields. The educational level of the parents of the two groups differed with a greater proportion of the parents of non-changers having never attended college. Sixty-six per cent of the parents of non-changers had never attended college while sixty per cent of the changers were from families where one or both of the parents had attended college.

Considering the size of the high school graduating class as a factor, a relatively greater proportion of the changers came from high schools that had graduating classes of 200 or more students. The two groups differed very little in clarity of vocational plans.

Table II presents a summary of the mean scores of the two groups and the *t* values for the fifteen areas of the *Edwards Personal Preference Schedule*, the *Brown-Holtzman Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes*, and the *Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Test*.

Among these seventeen characteristics included in the standardized test scores, in only one area, that of autonomy, were the differences in means of the two groups significant at the .01 level. In this area,

TABLE I

FAMILY BACKGROUND, SIZE OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATING CLASS AND CLARITY OF VOCATIONAL PLANS

	Changers		Non-Changers	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Parent Occupation				
Professional or Managerial	21	53.8	12	36.4
Clerical or Sales	9	23.1	6	18.2
Service	4	10.3	3	9.1
Agriculture, Fisheries, Forestry	0	0.0	3	9.1
Skilled	4	10.3	5	15.2
Semi-skilled	0	0.0	3	9.1
Unskilled	1	2.6	0	0.0
Others	0	0.0	1	3.0
Education of Parents				
Neither Attended College	15	38.9	22	66.7
One, but not both, attended college	17	44.7	4	12.1
Both attended college	6	16.4	7	21.2
Size of High School Graduating Class				
0 - 49	4	10.5	3	9.1
50 - 99	5	13.2	7	21.2
100 - 199	4	10.5	8	24.2
over 200	25	65.8	15	45.5
Clarity of Vocational Plans				
Know for sure	9	23.1	5	15.2
Relatively sure	17	43.5	12	36.4
Not so sure	11	28.2	12	36.4
Undecided	2	5.2	4	12.1

TABLE II

MEAN SCORES AND t VALUES OF CHANGERS AND NON-CHANGERS ON THREE STANDARDIZED INSTRUMENTS

Instrument	Mean Scores Changers N = 39	 Non-Changers N = 33	t Values*
Edwards Personal Preference Schedule			
1. Achievement	13.4	12.9	0.38
2. Deference	11.9	11.9	0.00
3. Order	10.6	10.7	0.00
4. Exhibition	15.4	14.5	0.86
5. Autonomy	13.8	10.1	2.84*
6. Affiliation	14.7	16.0	0.75
7. Intraception	14.5	15.5	0.80
8. Succorance	12.4	12.8	0.28
9. Dominance	14.9	12.7	1.57
10. Abasement	15.4	17.1	1.78
11. Nurturance	13.8	16.0	1.75
12. Change	14.5	16.0	1.37
13. Endurance	14.2	13.0	0.56
14. Heterosexuality	14.3	17.0	1.49
15. Aggression	13.0	12.2	0.68
Brown-Holtzman Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes	31.1	31.6	0.19
Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability	114.6	112.6	0.39

*A t value of 2.66 or greater would have been necessary to have shown a significant difference between the two groups at the .01 level of confidence.

autonomy, the mean scores of the changers was significantly higher than the mean scores of the non-changers. The manual of the Edwards scale (2) indicates that the manifest needs associated with this variable are to be able to come and go as desired, to say what one thinks about things, to be independent of others in making decisions, to feel free to do what one wants, to do things unconventional, to avoid situations where one is expected to conform, to do things without regard to what others may think, to criticize those in positions of authority, to avoid responsibilities and obligations.

Changes in Values

It is important to remember that the Study of Values measures relative strength of values in six areas: theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political, and religious. If a person scores high in one area his score or scores in other areas will be lower. Likewise, if a person increases values in one area as measured by the test, his other scores will decrease equally.

Since the titles given to some of the areas of values may not clearly identify what is included, perhaps a brief review of each area is in order. A person high in theoretical values is concerned with the discovery of truth. He characteristically would forego making judgments regarding the beauty or utility of objects and he is primarily concerned with reasoning and observing. Necessarily an intellectualist, his chief aim in life is to order and systematize his knowledge.

The economic man is primarily interested in what is useful. His relations with other people are likely to be characterized by an interest in surpassing them in wealth rather than dominating them or serving them.

The highest value for the aesthetic man resides in form and harmony. He regards life as a procession of events enjoyed for their own properties and judged from the standpoint of grace, symmetry, or fitness. The aesthete is quite different from the theoretical man in that he is inclined to place more importance on grace and beauty than on truth. He tends toward individualism and self-sufficiency.

Love of people is the highest value held by the social man. The type of love measured by the Study of Values is probably best described as being closely akin to altruism or philanthropy. Therefore, the social man is characterized as kind, sympathetic and unselfish. He regards love as the only suitable form of human relationship and his interest is selfless to the point that it closely approaches the religious attitude.

The primary interest of the political man is in power. Whatever his vocation, he wishes above all else for personal power, influence and renown. Direct expression of the power motive is uppermost.

The highest value of the religious man is unity. In other words, he places prime importance on comprehending the cosmos as a whole and relating himself to its totality. Some men of this type find their religious experience in the affirmation of life and in active participation therein. Others seek to unite themselves with higher reality by withdrawing from life.

The Study of Values is so constructed that all the values measured can be viewed positively. One value is not considered better than another. The question may well be raised, however; do institutions of higher education have a special interest in fostering any of these values more than others? Doubtless answers to this question would relate to the purposes of a college. One might argue, though, that the general intellectual nature of colleges would make most of them concerned with the development of theoretical values. From the great emphasis claimed by most colleges on liberal education, one might expect that they would want to influence positively aesthetic values in their students. On the other hand, disclaimers of special concern with wealth and power as life goals by many colleges would lead one to expect that they might not want their students to cultivate such values. Some people may argue that colleges have no business tampering with values developed in the home, the church, or the community and that the best college is the one which leaves values alone.

In our study we were interested in whether values change, whether all or any of them change in a consistent direction, and whether total changes are greater in some colleges than others. Table III - the mean change for each value in each of the five institutions. For two values the direction of change was consistent in all five institutions. Aesthetic values increased and social values decreased in every institution. Whether this means the colleges participating in the study are developing love of beauty at the expense of love of man, we would not want to say!

The total amount of change is fairly obviously larger in some institutions than in others. Institution D had a total change, the mean positive changes added together of less than 1.5 score points which institution C had a total change of approximately 4.0 score points.

A t-test to determine significance of change at the .01 level was computed. Ten of thirty proved significant. Three of the ten were not only statistically significant but also large. These included plus changes in aesthetic values in institutions C (non-public) and E (public) and a minus change in religious values in C.

TABLE III

MEAN CHANGES IN RELATIVE VALUES OF SAMPLES OF FRESHMAN COLLEGE STUDENTS AT FIVE INSTITUTIONS

Value	A N = 90	B N = 53	C N = 82	D N = 68	E N = 49
Theoretical	-1.06*	-1.09*	+0.90	+0.80	+0.09
Economic	+0.06	+0.43	-0.41	+0.12	-1.26*
Aesthetic	+0.70	+0.73	+3.09*	+0.43	+2.29*
Social	-0.38	-1.40*	-0.72	-0.47	-0.18
Political	+1.00*	+1.28*	-0.33	-0.80	+0.11
Religious	-0.59	+0.06	-2.50*	-0.08	-1.03*

* t significant at .01 level of confidence.

What causes those changes which occur? This we cannot answer: each institution may be able to do that for itself. What do the changes mean and what should the colleges do about them? Each college should look at the changes in relation to what it is trying to do with its students. Each might wish to follow its students throughout their careers at the college to see what other changes occur. We know that at least one institution already is considering an experimental effort at changing the values of some of its students.

As we look back at the findings in this study, five major points seem to stand out:

1. Students whose parents are in professional and managerial occupations and who have relatively more education change most. In other words, as far as these colleges are concerned changers come from relatively higher socio-economic backgrounds.
2. Changers have a greater need for autonomy than non-changers.
3. In the five institutions mean aesthetic values consistently changed upward, social values downward.
4. There were wide variations in the total amount of change in the different institutions.
5. Statistically significant changes occurred in four of the five institutions.

These findings may be of some help to the institutions participating. The study may be indicative of the kinds of research which a small college can do for itself or of broader studies in which colleges may participate.

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A PROPOSED STUDY OF THE ORIENTATIONS OF COLLEGE TEACHERS

Harry F. Hodge*

The purpose of this proposed study is to measure the work orientations of selected college teachers toward their responsibilities in higher education. To facilitate the measurement of their orientations, an instrument will be refined to answer the following questions:

1. How do college teachers view their orientations?
2. How is their orientation perceived by their colleagues?
3. How is their orientation perceived by their department heads?
4. How much consistency of orientation is to be found in a particular discipline? In specific institutions? By individuals, their colleagues and their department heads?

The instrument used in this study will be based on Drewry's _Orientation of College Teachers_.[1] An attempt has been made to collect favorable statements or descriptions of attitudes and activities engaged in by four types of teaching personnel believed to exist in American higher education. These statements have been drawn from Drewry's document, writings in the area, and from interviews conducted on the Auburn campus involving representatives from each school. The four typologies include: type one, the institution-oriented professor; type two, the research-oriented professor; type three, the discipline-oriented professor; and type four, the teaching-oriented professor.

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[1] Galen N. Drewry, "The Orientations of College Teachers," (Typology presented to American College and University Class, Auburn University, December, 1961).

Copies of the instrument (copy attached) will be sent to the department head and three staff members who hold the rank of assistant professor or higher from [illegible]eas of chemistry, education, history and physical education in ran[illegible] institutions. The institutions selected will be placed in three [illegible] offering two but less than four years, those offering the ba[illegible] and/or the master's degree, and institutions offering the Ph.D. or equivalent degrees. The institutions selected will be limited to the states of Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Tennessee which are accredited, include teacher preparation, and have enrollments of 300 or more.

The participants will be asked to rate themselves according to a scale which ranges from 1, very heavy orientation, to 5, no orientation. Staff members will be asked to rate the orientation a designated colleague seems to hold and department heads will be asked to rate each of the participants from his department toward the four parts of the typology used in the instrument.

Nature of the Problem

Much has been written about what college teachers seem to be and what they should be. Many of these writings are merely opinions or comparisons to some idealistic scale applied externally to the teaching situation. It would seem that many writers have determined what a "good teacher," an "ideal teacher," or a failure in teaching is, but each compilation of criteria seems to be contradictory to the preceding one.

It is the opinion of the writer that much of this controversy is derived from the fact that there has been little or no attempt to delve deeper than through a list of superficial mannerisms or practices attributable to a particular college teacher. These compilations have been derived from students, professors, alumni, "authorities", and critics of all types. It would seem that a more usable instrument could be devised from a categorization of types based on the basic orientations of college professors. By recognizing that different types of orientations exist, a typology dealing with each of the classifications could best be utilized to probe further into the possibilities of effective teaching and student success.

Importance in Contributing to New Knowledge

If it can be shown that college teachers are more strongly oriented toward some functions than others, a new dimension in work allocation, job satisfaction, motivation, teaching success, or fulfillment of goals may be indicated. When these orientations are capitalized upon, the areas of conflict may diminish.

While the literature does not indicate that a typology has been used as a basis for developing an instrument to determine satisfaction or effectiveness in college teaching, it would seem that the literature presents evidence of dissatisfaction justifying such an instrument to satisfy the following purposes.

1. To serve as an evaluative instrument to be used by individuals for self-evaluation.
2. To serve as an evaluative instrument to be used by departments or schools to evaluate their staff

orientations in terms of stated purposes and objectives of the department or school.

3. To serve as an evaluative instrument to be used by institutions to evaluate their staff orientations in terms of stated purposes and objectives of the institution.
4. To serve as an evaluative instrument to be used by department heads to make more efficient allocations of work loads and job assignments.
5. To serve as a selective device to fill a particular need of a department, school, or institution.

Name______________________

School____________________

Outlined below is a fourfold typology of college teachers. Rate yourself on each of the four typologies by writing the number which expresses the way you feel that YOU fit into each orientation using the following key.

1. _____ Very Heavy Orientation
2. _____ Heavy Orientation
3. _____ Medium Orientation
4. _____ Slight Orientation
5. _____ No Orientation

I

His first loyalty is to the institution and he would rather work in his institution than any other. He takes an active part in the social life of the campus. He supports enthusiastically the extra curricular activities of students; attends various athletic events; is likely to sponsor a social, professional, or honor club on the campus. He has strong emotional ties to the institution which may result from his being an alumnus, having been on the staff for several years, or having strong religious or family ties with the institution. He believes his institution has an atmosphere which makes the staff, students, and graduates distinctive from those of any other institution. He takes pride in the outstanding landmarks on his campus. He carefully follows the established traditions of the institution and unquestioningly supports decisions of superiors. He welcomes an opportunity to represent the institution. He is annoyed with the attitudes of critical
_____and non-conforming staff and students.

II

He enjoys doing research more than teaching and constantly finds that other things interfere with the conduct of the research he would like to do. He feels that his work can contribute to new knowledge and feels that the prime function of college professors is to make worthwhile contributions to knowledge. Among his colleagues, he rates highest those who are "productive". He puts great value on scholarship represented by writing and publication. He plans his work

carefully so that he spends a large proportion of his time in scholarly activities. He strongly prefers to teach advanced or graduate courses. He feels that findings from his own research should be worthwhile to his students. He allies himself with strong research or scholarly groups outside his institution and takes an
_____active part in their work.

III

He is saturated with his subject: feels that it is the most important one. He is distressed because his students know so little about his subject and few of them seem much interested in it. He enjoys reading new materials in his field but is not much interested in contributing to the literature. He has as his main purpose the selection and presentation of relevant information in his field and makes a diligent effort to keep up with new developments related to the classes he teaches. He outlines his courses well in advance and although he uses lectures as his primary teaching method, his students are helped to stick to the important facts or to respect
_____authoratative opinion.

IV

He indicates by action and manner that he enjoys teaching and that he likes his students. He likes the classroom, enjoys lectures to or discussions with groups of students. He enjoys working with students who need additional help. The class helps him formulate objectives for the course. He accepts student reaction to his teaching as a source of professional growth. He recognizes that all students have some contribution to make and encourages discussion in the classroom. He continuously experiments with his teaching procedures and utilizes theories of learning for class stimulation. He likes to teach any class in which he feels reasonably comfortable with the content.
_____